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AT THE SOUTH POLE

NEW STANDARD EDITION

THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS

AN INDEXED HISTORY OF THE WORLD FROM EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT DAY

BY

GREAT HISTORIANS

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ILLUSTRATED

VOLUME TEN

FROM A.D. 1911 TO A.D. 1918

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THE ITALIANS AT TRIPOLI

(A.D. 1911)

KEPI

ITALY has nursed a sentimental claim upon the northern coast-line of Africa for more than a generation. Her claim has mainly rested upon propinquity and the tradition of Roman conquest. The poignancy of this claim has been enhanced by the episodes in Mediterranean history that have narrowed its scope. Egypt on the one hand, Tunisia on the other, have passed to England and France, leaving to Italy only the Tripolitaine oasis ports and the ghosts of a civilization in Cyrenaica.

The impetus to Italian military energy.

There was also another impetus to Italian military energy. For fifteen years there has hung over the Italian nation a great shadow,—the shadow of a miserable defeat and national degradation suffered without remonstrance. Civilians may forget these things, but an army never forgets. For fifteen years the "skeleton in the cupboard" of Italy's army has been Adowa.* No amount of gay cavalry cloaks or skilful military horsemanship could eradi-

*The Italians were crushingly defeated by the Abyssinians at Adowa, and the prisoners of war were said to have been mutilated.

cate it. No peace excellence in embarkation duties could dislodge it. Nothing but a victory in blood could destroy it.

Once a powerful country has turned covetous eyes upon a weaker land there is one royal road that leads to annexation. The covetous Power schemes to lay a railway, open a bank, or build harbor works in the poorer land. As sure as a sleeper is laid, a counter opened, or crane erected, the independence of the weaker country is doomed. In Tripoli it has been the Banca di Roma that has furnished the necessary *casus belli* to precede annexation. Again we have the shadow of Adowa pervading Italy's African adventure. Ever since that memorable reverse the Porte has treated Italy, if not as a negligible quantity, at least as a third-rate fighting Power. Though unable to prevent the establishment of the bank, yet each Vali of Tripoli has had orders to thwart its development.

The *casus belli.*

Without a doubt, ever since the Young Turk revolution, Italy has had in contemplation a sudden descent upon Tripoli at the first favorable opportunity. It was only the fear of European objections that prevented her from falling upon Tripoli when Austria mulcted the Ottoman empire of Bosnia-Herzegovina and Ferdinand established the complete independence of Rumelia. Matters had therefore to remain in abeyance until a more favorable opportunity presented itself. The

opportunity, strangely enough, came to the present Italian Ministry. I say "strangely enough," because it so happens that members of the present Ministry are not unconnected with the financial fortunes of the Banca di Roma. It was the trend of events in Morocco this summer that gave to Italy the cue. In spite of Socialism and its dwarfing influences, Italy is still a patriotic country. If this patriotism is somewhat of a hysterical order, none the less it proved valuable to the statesmen who were intent upon robbing Turkey of Tripoli. Such an unusual proceeding was quite sufficient to influence journalists in their judgment. It was insidiously suggested that the German occupation of Agadir was but a preliminary to a German campaign of aggrandizement that destined Tobruk as the next probable seizure. Italian public opinion was inflamed by a mysterious statement that negotiations were already on foot by which the Porte was ceding the port to Germany. Having manœuvred public opinion in this way, the Italian Government gave its preliminary orders for the mobilization of an expeditionary force. Public sentiment waxed strong in their favor, and Italy armed; while neither Europe nor Turkey believed that she was in earnest.

The German occupation of Agadir.

It was only about the 25th of October, three days before an ultimatum was sent to Turkey, that Europe woke up to the realization that

she was on the brink of a European war from an altogether unexpected quarter. Since the beginning of September all eyes had been glued upon the Franco-German frontier, looking for that trivial affair of outposts that would have rocked the whole civilized world to its foundation. There had been no attention left for Italy and Tripolitania. The Ottoman Government even had not taken the warnings too seriously until the beginning of October. Then the latter suddenly realized that while the first three Ordus of the Ottoman army had been placed upon an efficient war-footing, the Tripoli detached division was hopelessly untended and under strength. To send men in the present juncture was impossible, but it might be practical to send arms and ammunition to the local Arabs. The *Derna,* an Austrian-Lloyd steamer, was therefore chartered. Her hold was filled with arms and ammunition, and she was cleared for Tripoli. The sailing of the *Derna* had the effect of "speeding up" the Italian plans, with the result that the declaration of war came just a little too soon. As events were to prove, it would have been far better for the Italian compaign if they had arrested the *Derna* on the high seas, and let this incident establish the *casus belli,* than to have chaperoned her with a cruiser all the way from the Dardanelles to Tripoli without action.

The sailing of the *Derna.*

As a result, she was able to disgorge her

dangerous cargo some days before hostilities were begun.

The declaration of war.

The Italian ultimatum was presented on October 28, and expired on October 29 at 4 P. M. The document was couched in language which no self-respecting Government, however impotent, could have suffered, and it was, therefore, *ipse facto,* a declaration of war. This outbreak of war created one of the most curious strategical situations that has ever come before the student. It demonstrated conclusively the impossibility of empire unless it be adequately based upon sea power. Here we had Turkey, with no navy to speak of, yet with a powerful European and Asiatic army, practically powerless before Italy. The latter Power's fleet while it rendered Turkey's main armies innocuous, enabled the army to throw its weight upon a detached portion of the Ottoman Empire. The more curious result from this apparently one-sided affray is the fact that while Italy could not effect any great material damage upon Turkey, beyond the destruction of the Ottoman forces marooned in the Tripolitaine, Turkey is able to effect considerable economic punishments upon her enemy. As the Ottoman subjects have already demonstrated on several notable occasions, they are wonderful agents in the application of a national boycott. The Turkish Empire is a great market for Italy's small wares. This market is now

completely closed. Over and above the financial losses effected by this means, the cost of the war, with its large expeditionary force that has to be fed entirely from Italy, is a heavy drain upon a country that is not noted in Europe for its financial stability. The other belligerent, however, has practically no expenses, as it can do but little to further the fortunes of its tiny army detached in the Tripolitaine. While the war is costing Italy nearly three million sterling a week, it is not costing the Ottoman Empire as many piastres a year. The best of battleships cannot go over land, or, for that matter, force the Dardanelles.

The disparity between the navies of the belligerents.

This disparity between the navies of the belligerents is such that it is barely necessary to enumerate the "strengths" of both countries. Italy entered the campaign with a battleship squadron of two divisions, and a cruiser squadron of similar strength, only that one division was a ship short.

Against the Italian battleships of 13,000 tons displacement the Turkish navy could only show the two old ships that had recently been purchased from Germany, and the two small protected cruisers *Hamidieh* and *Medjidieh*. In the smaller craft Italy also held a big advantage, though there was one division of Turkish destroyers that was said to be a credit to the British officer who had instructed officers and crew.

When the ultimatum was despatched from Rome the Turkish ocean-going squadron was on the point of sailing from Beirut, where it had put in for coal, after exercising in the Ægean waters. It had been Italy's aim to arrange the expiration of the ultimatum so that Admiral Aubrey could send the first battleship division and first cruiser division to intercept and destroy the Turkish sea-going fleet before it reached the Dardanelles. This was to have been the first paralyzing *coup* by which Italy trusted to make the war short and decisive. There is little information of what happened to the Italian fleet: this much is known, that the Turkish squadron, all ignorant of the declaration of war, arrived safely at the entrance to the Dardanelles. Once the Turks had disappeared into the Dardanelles, there was little left for the Italian navy to do but to aid in the disembarkation of the expeditionary force. There was a tiny affair at Prevasa, where the Italian first destroyer division swept up a couple of Turkish small craft. A Turkish electric launch was also captured in a Red Sea harbor.

The escape of the Turkish fleet.

The Italian General Staff calculated that two divisions would be sufficient for the occupation of the Tripolitaine coast towns. It was argued that if Italy could put a division on shore at Tripoli, a brigade at Benghazi, and split up another brigade amongst other coast ports, that Turkey, with her fleet de-

stroyed, would have no choice but to accept the inevitable and surrender her claims in North Africa at discretion.

The Italian force was very generally drawn from the whole of Italy, though perhaps a southern element predominated. To convey the force to the coast of Tripoli a great fleet of transports had been taken up, which was gathered in Naples harbor.

The great fleet of transports.

The composition of the Tripoli division is returned as 4 field-batteries and 2 mountain-batteries, 17 battalions of nizam infantry and 10 squadrons of nizam cavalry, plus the 10 battalions of local militia already mentioned. At normal peace strength the totals would give roughly 10,000 *nizams* and 5,000 militia. It may be taken, however, as practically certain that the garrison was starved, and that the peace strengths were not up to the establishments. The nearest estimate of the troops actually found in Tripoli town at the declaration of war is that based on the review which the Vali attended on "Independence Day." Then about 4,000 Turkish troops of all arms marched past. Although the Tripoli garrison had been neglected by Stambul, it must not be thought that it was in the decayed state that one connects with the Turkish army of a few years back. The supply of quick-firing field and mountain artillery (Krupp 1908) was up to establishment. The men throughout the division were equipped with khaki

uniforms and the new *kalpak* and *bachlik*. There was an adequate supply of small-arm ammunition, and, as the Italians were to learn to their cost, there was also a fine supply of reserve magazine rifles. What Tripoli lacked was land defences: the semi-circle of forts that defended the harbor were of ancient construction, and were furnished with an obsolete model of Krupp fortress artillery. Moreover, there were no trained fortress gunners to man the batteries and to get from them the best of their puny powers. At a liberal computation the most that Neshet Bey, the chief military commander, could count upon in the matter of trained Turkish soldiers in the whole vilayet of Tripoli could not have exceeded 10,000 men. That he was able to enlist a large amount of raw material amongst the Arabs and Bedouin came as another great surprise to the Italians.

The Italian fleet appears off Tripoli.

On the 29th September two divisions of the Italian fleet appeared off Tripoli and manœuvred in a menacing manner in the offing. The acting Vali, Munir Pasha, had already been informed of the ultimatum. Munir Pasha is a feeble old gentleman, and the direction of affairs fell automatically into the hands of Neshet Bey, his senior Staff officer, and the virtual commander of the garrison. Neshet Bey knew that it was hopeless to attempt to oppose a naval attack with the fortress armament existing in Tripoli. He there-

fore decided to arm all the Arabs in the Tripoli environment, and to fall back himself to one or another of the large oases in the interior with all the regular troops at his disposal. To this purpose every camel in the Tripoli oasis was commandeered, and all the army contractors, under pressure, were instructed to collect as much foodstuffs as would be necessary for 5,000 men for three months. As many of the local militia as could be found were immediately mobilized and issued with arms and uniforms. The Regular troops left barracks and encamped at the Boumelliana pumping-station, on the outskirts of the desert, ready to march southward the moment the Italians attempted to throw a force ashore.

The Turkish troops evacuate Tripoli.

The Turkish troops evacuated Tripoli by detachments between September 30 and October 2. By the evening of October 2 the last *échelon* had moved out into the desert, and there were no troops left in the town except a few seedy fortress artillerymen who had orders to man the forts "just to make a show." The townspeople had already shown signs of panic. The population of Tripoli does not differ materially from that of other seaports in the Levant. It has a large population of those parasitical races that cling to the fringe of the Ottoman Empire. These are Maltese, Greeks, Levantines, Syrians, and nondescripts of no definite nationality. There

must be some 20,000 of these, with another 40,000 of the Arabs of the oasis.

On 3rd October Admiral Faravelli, who commanded the two naval divisions before Tripoli, bombarded the land defences. The few seedy Turkish artillerymen that were left behind, aided by some Arabs, just fired sufficient rounds from the obsolete Krupps "to save the garrison's face," and Tripoli was henceforth at the mercy of the Italians.

Land defences bombarded.

Having reduced the batteries on the 3rd, on the following day Admiral Faravelli landed a naval brigade on the west shore, in the vicinity of Gilgursh. He still believed the town to be hostile, as early in the morning, when he had sent in a torpedo-boat under a white flag, it had been fired upon from the Hamidieh Fort to the east of the harbor. This fort was again bombarded. As a matter of fact as has already been made clear the entire Turkish force except the few artillerymen had evacuated the town before the date of Faravelli's first bombardment.

The Arabs of the oasis were not slow to profit by the evacuation, and on the evening of the 3rd and the morning of the 4th of October they poured into the town, and began to ransack the deserted public buildings. The barracks in the oasis, the gendarmerie post-houses, the arsenal, and Konak were gutted, and on the morning of the 4th the attitude of the looters became so threatening that it looked

as if the bazaars and private property were about to be given over to pillage. The consular body, therefore, determined to invite the Italians to land. A white flag was hoisted over the Konak, and an invitation was sent on board the flagship to the Admiral to take over the town and save it from pillage. A further contingent of sailors was immediately landed, and Tripoli was occupied. In all, the fleet landed a naval brigade of 1,800 men, which was commanded by Captain Cagni, the associate of the Duke of Abruzzi in Arctic travel. Captain Cagni, having ascertained that the Turks had marched off into the desert by the Gharian road, established an outpost line that cut off about a third of the western end of the oasis. The main trace of this outpost line followed the fringe of the oasis, where it met the desert and included the pumping-station of Boumelliana, which supplied much of the water for the town. Its left flank cut through the oasis just east of the quarter of Shara Shatt and the right flank, in open desert, was the group of earthworks already described as Gilgursh (Sultaneh). It is necessary to enter into this detail here, as the position thus described, as established for less than 2,000 sailors, is practically the same trace that Italy holds to-day with two infantry divisions. It will be seen that the *enceinte* enclosed by this outpost line was about four square miles of densely-inhabited palm-grove. The navy held

Tripoli is occupied by Italian troops.

Tripoli from the 4th to the 10th October. Towards the end of this period the sailors became very anxious, their information being that the enemy were preparing to advance to the attack, and they knew that they could not deny them the eastern end of the oasis if they chose to come and occupy it. On October 8 the Admiral cabled to Rome for support so urgently, that two swift ocean-liners were immediately despatched from Naples with troops. These arrived at Tripoli early in the morning of the 11th, and the troops were at once disembarked and marched to relieve the weary sailors in the outpost line. The first troops to arrive were the devoted 11th Bersaglieri and the 40th Infantry.

The Italian transports arrive.

At daybreak on October 12 the Italian Armada in all its glory arrived from Naples. There were twenty-five large army transports that had been convoyed across the Mediterranean by two divisions of warships and a cloud of torpedo craft. As they steamed into the roadstead in the early light of an African morning they made a picture of suggested strength that was most impressive to the Arab onlookers, who had not yet quite recovered from the nerve-shattering effects of the bombardment. The army began to disembark at once.

The army of occupation started upon its adventure on the hypothesis that the Arabs were hostile to the Turks and friendly to Italy.

Caneva spoke in his proclamations of the Turks as "our common enemy." Satisfied with this assumption, no effort was made to collect from the population the ten to fifteen thousand stand of magazine rifles that it was known had been distributed to them from the hold of the *Derna:* no adequate measures were taken, either to police the town and its environment, or to picket the outlying villages and hamlets in the palm-groves.

A descendant of the house of Karamanli was appointed as vice-governor of the town, and some Moslem as the mayor. With these measures the entire staff and army reposed a confidence in the Arab population which, though engaging enough in the simplicity that prompted it, was a culpable weakness in the stern path of war. For a time the Italian clemency prospered, and the rosiest reports were dispatched to Rome of the endearing attitude of the new Arab subjects. There was, however, to be a rude awakening.

The chief ports of Tripoli occupied by Italian troops.

The ease with which its troops had occupied Tripoli induced the Italian Government to proceed forthwith with the occupation of all the chief ports of the Tripolitaine coast. The procedure was much the same in each case: the fleet blustered up and fired shell into the obsolete Turkish defences, and then sailors and troops were put on shore. At Tobruk and Derna but little opposition, if any, was experienced, but at Benghazi and Khoms the local

Turkish garrison, helped by the Arabs, made strenuous resistance,—so much so that the Italian Government immediately became alarmed, and established a censorship of all news from Cyrenaica, in the hope of concealing the truth. At Benghazi the small Turkish garrison had so organized the Arabs that they showed to the Italians a really stiff opposition, and the fleet had seriously to come into action to support the landing. The treacherous sea also added to the Italians' difficulties, and rose before the landing was completed, thereby placing the portion of the force already put ashore in a dangerous predicament. The overwhelming force that the Italians could bring to bear, however, was too much for any resistance, however brave and devoted, that the Turks and Arabs could bring against them. The opposition was driven back all along the coastline, but not before the Italians had suffered about 500 in casualities. In no case had the opposition been crushingly defeated, and the Arabs and Turks, though they had perforce to fall back, never lost touch with the Italians or ceased to harass them on every occasion.

The Turkish troops march towards Tripoli.

The expeditionary force at Tripoli was therefore very astonished when accurate information arrived that the Turkish force, augmented by some thousands of Arabs, was marching towards Tripoli. General Pecori-Girardi, who commanded the 1st Division,

had with very slight modifications accepted the line of resistance which the navy had bequeathed to him.

In the meantime the Turks had gained expert leaders from Europe, allies from the Bedouin and Berber tribes, and confidence from the Italian inaction and from the stories that were in circulation describing Italian defeats at Benghazi and Khoms. The Turks were in constant communication with their sympathizers in Tripoli. In fact, Turkish officers disguised as Arabs were seen constantly in the town by those who had no wish to betray their presence to the Italians. It was arranged that a great combined attack by every rifle that the Turks could bring against the position should be made on the appearance of the new moon, and that while this attack was being pressed home the Arabs in the town and oasis should rise and take the Italian positions in the rear. It was a pretty plan, and it came within an ace of being successful.

The aeroplane scouts.

From October 20 it was generally apparent that the Turks intended aggression. The aeroplane scouts reported groups of Turks and Arabs in "thousands" at the oasis of Zanzur, twelve miles southwest of Tripoli; at Ainzara, about equidistant to the south; and again at the oasis of Azizia, still farther south of Ainzara. Instead of profiting by this information and advancing to destroy these Turkish forces in detail, the Italians awaited developments

in their trenches. On the morning of the 23rd of October the Turks discovered that two-thirds of the Tripoli oasis was open to them. They demonstrated along the entire front of the Italian position, and pushed up a strong posse of Arabs into the eastern extremity of the home oasis. Working along this cover these Arabs were able to approach to within a few yards of the trenches which three companies of the 11th Bersaglieri had cut across the palm-grove. When building their defences on this flank, the Italians had failed to clear a field of fire to their front. Their line of resistance just cut obliquely through the intricate cover of the palm-grove. Walls, cacti, fig-trees, and olive-groves masked the enemy until they were within a few feet of the Bersaglieri trenches. Discovering this advantage, the hot-headed Arabs could not restrain from attacking at once. What Neshet Bey intended as a reconnoissance became in the actual oasis a combat *à outrance*. So fierce was the onslaught that a few of the Arabs succeeded in breaking through the Italian lines.

The Arabs' attack.

It had been arranged through the emissaries that the Turks had sent into the town, that when the Turkish force attacked in earnest, the Arabs of the oasis should rise behind the Italian lines and join in the discomfiture of the invaders. The Arabs of the quarter immediately behind the Bersaglieri lines, not

unnaturally, when they saw among them their wild-eyed compatriots who had just broken through the lines, thought that the moment for action had arrived. They snatched their rifles from their hiding-places and opened fire upon every Italian they saw. When dealing with such inflammable material as Arabs who have been hourly expecting to be let loose with arms, it does not take long for an outburst to gather way. In a few minutes a cloud of Arabs were attacking the Bersaglieri in the rear. So unprepared were the Bersaglieri for such a development, that the officers believed the attack from their rear to be a mistake on the part of friendly Arabs, and for a time they restrained their men from answering to it. Then the full significance of their awful predicament burst upon them, and they fell in their devoted men back to back. It may be said of the two flank companies of the 11th Bersaglieri, in the words of the historian, that they ceased to exist.

The rising of the Arabs spreads.

In the meantime the rising had spread, and the whole intervening country between the Bersaglieri front and the town was alive with armed Arabs, who shot every uniformed Italian on sight. The roads running from the town to the outposts were naturally full of men on various fatigues connected with supply, and these unsuspecting escorts were the first victims. Luckily the mounted Carabinieri had just arrived from Italy. They

were occupied in the suburbs partitioning their spheres of control when the rising began. They were able to hold the ends of the streets that radiate from the town into the villages. Being a force used to sudden emergencies, they kept their heads, and prevented any considerable contingent of the armed Arabs making an entry into the bazaars, or the town Arabs from joining their friends outside.

The rising was so sudden and unexpected that it was impossible completely to ring the town before some of the wilder spirits made their way into it. The Italians say that the rising was inaugurated by shots fired from a house in town where Turkish subjects awaiting expulsion were living. Be this as it may, about midday the shooting had communicated itself to the town, and there ensued an hour of frightful panic. The Christians of the Levant, especially those who dwell under the Star and Crescent, are particularly liable to panic. They live always with the fear of massacre upon them. The Christian and Jewish population of Tripoli is no exception to this rule. The cry went up of "The Arabs are in the town!" In a moment there was a wild rush for the consulates, for the boats, for any building that offered the suggestion of an asylum. The panic was augmented by the circumstance that the market square was filled with camel-men in the service of the invaders. As shots from the Moslem graveyard fell in

The panic caused by the Arabs' attack.

the market square, the camel-men, feeling no doubt that they and their animals were forfeit in the eyes of Turks or Bedouins, drove their animals into the narrow alleys of the town. This added to the block and terror, to be immediately intensified by the excited action of the Italian soldiery. Men working at the wharves, hospital orderlies, and the guards from the various public buildings, knowing nothing of what had caused the panic, unslung their rifles, rushed into the streets, and in many cases began to shoot. It was during this turmoil that many Arab knives slipped out and struck down the uniformed Italians in the open highway, thereby showing how prepared the Arabs were to be hostile, and how much the Italians had been saved by this premature unmasking of the real feelings of the Arab population. It was about an hour before the panic subsided, or rather before every one had found shelter behind locked doors, except the troops that had taken possession of the streets. In the immediate suburbs, however, desultory firing continued until well into the night.

The troops regain possession of the streets.

Desperate things, however, had been happening in the oasis, where the line of the Bersaglieri had been broken. The 82nd Infantry carried on the Italian line from the right of the Bersaglieri, and owing to the demonstration made by the Turks along the entire Italian front, the reserves of this regi-

ment had been pushed forward in readiness. As soon as it was realized what had really come to pass in the rear of the Bersaglieri, some one suggested to the Colonel commanding these reserves that he should sweep through the hamlets concerned and re-establish the left of the line. This he proceeded to do, and the few armed Arabs that were menacing the approaches to the town were driven eastwards along the oasis. The bulk of risen Arabs were engaged in the massacre of the two flank companies of the Bersaglieri, and the 82nd drove them into the unoccupied portion of the oasis, across the mutilated bodies of their own unfortunate comrades.

It is no exaggeration to say that the events of October 23 shocked the Italian army of occupation from top to bottom. The rising had come as a bolt from the blue. The terrible losses of the Bersaglieri; the massacre of unfortunates caught in the cactus alleyways; and the general hopelessness, bred of inactivity, had an evil effect upon an army that had started the campaign with "a skeleton in its cupboard." The army looked upon its dead and apprehended disaster. All the lurid legends of Abyssinia, that it had heard from childhood, came back to it as facts in war about to be repeated. There was only one military measure that Caneva could order. He had the prospect of an immediate attack by the entire force that Neshet Bey could

The terrible losses of the Bersaglieri.

bring against him. He had been reminded, rudely enough, that there were seven to ten thousand Turkish rifles still in the hands of the Tripoli Arabs that might be turned against his soldiers' backs. It was, therefore, imperative that the oasis, as far as the Italians held it, should be cleared of Arabs, and that reprisals should be taken against those villages in the oasis in which the rising had occurred. No military commander would have been justified in doing less. The orders were issued, therefore, that the oasis should be immediately cleared, and that all male Arabs found with arms in their hands, or who were shown, from circumstantial or other evidence, to have been implicated in the rising, should be summarily executed. The orders were sufficiently lax and general to permit of a sharp and salutary lesson, as the Arabs had already been warned by proclamation that the possession of a rifle would be considered a capital offence. Caneva and his Staff, however, had not calculated upon what this order meant to troops that had just seen their mutilated dead, who believed that they were again about to be attacked treacherously in the rear, and who had ever over them the shadow of Adowa. The carrying out of the duty necessitated the breaking up of the troops into small detachments, which loosed the control upon the inflamed passions of the soldiery. Nor did the Staff know how or when to place

The oasis ordered to be cleared of Arabs.

a period upon the licence they thus gave the troops. The result was a retribution upon the Arabs which will live in the memory of the Tripolitaine for generations, and which will react for many a year upon the perpetrators themselves. It is not desirable here to go into the details of the rays of bloodshed that swept through the Italian portion of the oasis. War is horrid and merciless, and its horror and mercilessness are intensified when killing is done by men actuated by terror. This much, however, should be said in favor of the Italians before this page be turned,—many foreign journalists have used the incident of these military reprisals as a means to sell their own sordid wares, a practice to the mind of the soldier far more reprehensible than fitting the punishment to the military crime of treachery.

The real attack by the Turks was made three days after the demonstration, and when the *enceinte* of palm-groves was practically clear of Arabs. In the early morning Turkish shrapnel began to burst above the date-palms, and certain attacking troops threatened from the desert front. The main attack, however, was reserved for the left flank. The Turkish commander had discovered the vulnerability of the Italians' left—and the military value of that portion of the Tripoli oasis the Italians could not hold. Here Neshet Bey had massed the majority of his fighting men,

The main attack on left flank.

who were now augmented by a considerable number of the Tripoli Arabs. The latter naturally enough, after the rising, had preferred the cover of the oasis to the scant security behind the Italians' lines. Again was the weakness of the measures of defence on this front demonstrated. The Arabs and Turks were again able to approach under cover of the groves to within a few feet of the trenches, which had now been taken over by other companies of Bersaglieri. Twice in the same morning the attack was upon the point of overwhelming the defence. The Bersaglieri, however, fought with the greatest courage, and though the Italian field-gunners were driven from the pieces they were serving in the trenches, the Bersaglieri swept the exultant attackers back into the palm-trees with levelled bayonets. For three hours a bloody contest hung in the balance, until the arrival of the reserves at last decided the day. The price of victory, however, had been high—so high that the Staff at last awoke to the danger of this oasis. Instead of bringing up a brigade and clearing the oasis with the bayonet for good and all, as they might easily have done that afternoon, they decided to contract their front on this flank and retire the line about a mile while they cabled to Italy for another infantry division. In the circumstances these were about the two worst military measures that could have been undertaken. The first

The price of victory high.

had a still further depressing effect upon the troops, and gave opportunity to the Turkish commander to report sensational victories to Stamboul. The second will only swell the tale of sickness which must be the lot of this great Italian army cooped up in Tripoli.

[Duke of Connaught becomes Governor-General of Canada. Main batteries at Tripoli bombarded by Italian vessels. Turkish squadron arrives in the Bosphorus from the Dardanelles. Italians capture Mersa Tobruk, 700 miles east of Tripoli. California voters adopt constitutional amendments for initiative and referendum recall and woman suffrage. Revolution in China against the Manchu dynasty. Hanyang captured and Hankow occupied. Yuan-Shi-Kai recalled from retirement and appointed Viceroy of Hunan and Hupeh. Mutual concessions by France and Germany in the French Congo and Cameroons end the Morocco disputes. Chinese Republic proclaimed with General Li-Huan-Hung as President. Remarkable edict issued from Peking, in which the Throne apologized for its past neglect and granted an immediate Constitution and free pardon to rebels and political offenders. Chi-fu opens its gates to revolutionists. Fourteen vessels of imperial Chinese fleet join insurgents. Chinese rebels take Amoy. Chinese Cabinet formed. Japanese troops land at Chi-fu.

Revolution in China.

Diplomatic relations severed between Russia and Persia. Manchus and missionaries massacred at Sian-fu. President Cacares of Santo Domingo assassinated. New canals found on Mars at Lowell Observatory, Arizona. President Taft reviews warships in Hudson River. Papal Consistory confirms nominations of new cardinals. Chinese Emperor proclaims a constitution. Rebels take Shanghai. Chinese troops burn Hankow. U. S. S. *Chester* sails for Tripoli to investigate Italian atrocities. Russia serves ultimatum to Persia. Chinese revolutionists take Foo-Chow. Manchus murder 1,000 persons at Nanking. Russian advance on Persian capital ordered. Revolutionists capture Nanking. Independence of Mongolia proclaimed. Prince Chun, Chinese regent, abdicates. Army and Navy Board reports that the battleship *Maine* was blown up from the outside. King George and Queen Mary proclaimed Emperor and Empress of India at Delhi. United States, Great Britain, France, Germany, Japan, and Russia unite to assist the Peace Conference at Shanghai. China proclaimed a republic by revolutionists.]

China proclaimed a republic.

THE AWAKENING OF CHINA

(A.D. 1911)

H. BOREL

THE awakening of China to national consciousness is a process suddenly excited by the thunder of Japanese guns after a long period of silent brooding, and it is beyond the pale of possibility to estimate the immense influence it may have on the evolution of the whole world in the domain of politics, economics, science and art.

Until a few years ago there was, as a matter of fact, no Chinese people, in the sense of a single conception comprehending all Chinese. China was an unwieldy, inert mass of heterogeneous provinces and peoples, perhaps only kept together by the difficulty of falling asunder. When in 1894 the war in the north was waged against Japan, the South Chinese in the Fuhkien Province did not concern themselves with it, and it left the Chinese in the colonies beyond the seas as cold as a war between Bulgaria and Servia might have done. Up to the time of the Russo-Japanese War I hardly ever heard any Chinaman in Singapore or Batavia express the slightest interest in what might happen in Chinese politics. A

Effect of Russo-Japanese War.

Chinese emigrant in the English, American, or Dutch colonies might have ancestral tombs or prayer-houses somewhere in China which might bind him to a certain spot in the land of his early life, but his interest was only associated with that particular place of his origin, not with the native country, conceived as a national unit.

A Chinese from Shanghai was, moreover, as distinct from one hailing from Canton as a Spaniard from a Frenchman, and the same applies to a Chinese from Foochow, as compared with one from Peking, etc., etc. One usually speaks of Chinese "dialects," but "languages" would be the more correct expression. A Chinaman from the north could not understand one from the south; a domestic from Amoy could not talk to a tramping tailor from Shanghai. China was a heterogeneous mass of peoples who had only one tie in common—the written language, but this amounts to no more than do the Roman numbers in Europe to-day. The number X, for instance, is the same all over Europe, but the Englishman reads it as *Ten,* the Frenchman as *Dix,* the Italian as *Dieci,* and so on. In addition there is the so-called Chinese of the Mandarins, the Kuan hua or Ching yin. This language was spoken more or less generally in the north, but in the south only by high dignitaries and by highly cultured literates. Its slightly different Pekingese variety was the language of

Chinese dialects.

the Court and of diplomats, but in the south it was not nearly so much used as French is in the more refined sets of Europeans. Only a select few of the officials and the literates knew the Chinese of the Mandarins; the overwhelming large proportion of people, especially in the south, did not.

No single popular language.

A single popular language—one that could be used among all the civilized middle classes from Canton to Shanghai, from Peking to Foochow and Amoy—did not exist. The Chinese of various southern provinces and districts of China remained foreigners to each other; they did not feel themselves as belonging to one brotherhood, as the possessors of one common treasure—the national vernacular by which the national mind may give utterance to its most sacred and intimate sentiments.

It is for this reason that I never anticipated the possibility of this conception suddenly emerging into a reality—one Chinese nation, one Chinese language, as there is one English nation and one English language.

But the roaring thunder of the Japanese guns over Chinese seas and the plains and mountains of Chinese Manchuria roused into activity the latent forces slumbering in the heterogeneous, indolent mass. Exactly how it came about no one really knows. At the back of the world's history mystical, spiritual powers are at work unseen, raising and lower-

ing the rhythm of those great movements of the world wherein nations and dynasties rise to their culmination and then fall into decay.

It was as if a magnetic current, an electric vibration, passed through the body of this gigantic colossus, this magnificent, huge, primeval creature of prehistoric periods, apparently dead but in reality only slumbering through the centuries, on whose back foreign parasites had settled down, stinging and wounding and nesting in its skin. Suddenly the heavy thick eyelids are half opened, a tremor of new life shivers through the unwieldy frame, the thick flabby skin contracts, the tremendous legs make the earth resound; and with a cry reverberating through the whole world, it hails a new day.

Here we had not only Japan defeating Russia on the plains of Manchuria, but a fragment of the East—the colored—shaking off the West—the white—which reeled under the repulse. This terrific occurrence rang in a new era for the East, and the Chinese, the Hindu, the Mohammedan, awoke trembling, divining, with that Eastern intuition which is like second-sight, the hardly credible possibilities of the future. And then the abstract idea, so ultra-realistic because it is abstract, according to Eastern wisdom, the idea of "the East for the East," born in the gore of battlefields and ensanguined seas, saw the light.

A new era for the East.

It is the idea now hovering over hundreds

of millions of souls from Benares to Peking, from Calcutta to Batavia, and finding an echo far away in the hearts of all who are colored, yellow and brown—in farthest America, in Capetown and the Transvaal, in Australia, in Alexandria, in Constantinople.

Europe is not yet immediately threatened by the Yellow Peril of bayonets, air-ships, and armored cruisers; but there is the much greater, much stronger—because spiritual and mystical—danger of the Yellow Idea; indestructible and irresistible like all spiritual forces in the history of the universe, mightier than the thickest armor-plates, more far-reaching than the monsters of Krupp or Creusot. One can level to the ground by heavy artillery any armored fort, destroy *Dreadnoughts* by mines and torpedoes, but the spiritual idea fermenting among hundreds of millions cannot be exterminated by material weapons.

Railways and concessions.

Much has already been written about railways and concessions, about loans and the exploitation of mines. Many have pondered and meditated on the reform of the Chinese people and the awakening of the Young Chinese. But it has not been clearly understood that what is really happening in China at the present moment is merely the outward symptom of a single inward idea arising in Eastern Asia, a pulse of the rhythm in which the whole world moves. European diplomacy

and European sinology ought to understand in the first place that any appreciation of the Young Chinese movement must start from the point of view that the idea, "the East for the East," is essentially spiritual, even mystical, and will not at all carry with it only the material movements of economical and trading interests. It involves immensely more than social reform and the expansion of trade. China with her four hundred millions is now moving upward in the world's course, because in future she will work mightily towards the spiritual and intellectual progress of all humanity.

The beginnings of reform.

Stated briefly, the beginnings of reform, as far as outward signs go, were as follows: After the defeat of the big, hairy Russian by the small brave Japanese, China began to realize her own latent power; she began to consider how it came about that this small David had been able to stay this gigantic Goliath. It was as simple as the problem of Columbus's egg, but it took centuries after centuries for China to see this egg standing on its end.

About three years ago I, with a Chinese friend, visited a private Chinese school somewhere in Java, and opened the desk of an urchin scarcely ten years old. I picked up his exercise book of compositions, and what I read there I may copy here without any comment, so exactly does it reflect the actual situation. He wrote: "Small Japan defeated big

China. Afterwards small Japan defeated big Russia. How was it able to accomplish this? You think by ships and soldiers. But that is not so. It defeated Russia by its knowledge, by its education. It defeated the stupid Chinese and Russian soldiers, because education is so good in Japan; because the Japanese people are instructed in the sciences and are no longer ignorant. There is hardly a Japanese soldier who cannot read and write. China is much bigger than Japan and much bigger than Russia or any empire of Europe, and it has more than four hundred millions of inhabitants. When these people are instructed and know, China will be much more powerful than little Japan or the strongest peoples of Europe. Therefore the first thing China wants is instruction. It must start with that. Then China will become the first empire of the world."

China's first need is instruction.

This short essay of a ten-year-old child from the Dutch colony offers a striking instance of what now fills the Chinese popular mind, of what is taught in Chinese schools. Education has been reformed all over China and—perhaps forced upon it by public opinion—education is now the foremost care of the Chinese Government. It was initiated by an impulse from Japan. Japanese schoolmasters opened in China the first modern Elementary School and were followed by Chinese scholars who had studied in Japan. After-

wards the Government took the official lead and had schools erected as far as possible all over China. The general curriculum of these schools is formed on a Japanese model, this again being an imitation of a European one rendered suitable to Eastern conditions. The present governmental programme contains a promise of compulsory education. Educational appliances, originally from Japan, are now being printed and manufactured chiefly in China. There is a separate Ministry for Education established in Peking, and inspectors of High Schools and Grammar Schools are appointed by this department. A few schools have already been opened and a larger number are provided for. There are still not a few Japanese teachers in China, but there is a growing tendency to substitute for them Chinese who have studied in Japan. And in China itself Preparatory Schools are being erected for the education of elementary teachers.

The Chinese of the Mandarins is being taught.

But the most important thing is that in all these schools the Chinese of the Mandarins (Ching yin) is being taught. Why? Because —and here lies the central importance of the Chinese education question, wherever there are Chinese settlements—because the awakened national sentiment has discerned that unity of language is indispensable to national unity. What is at present possible to a small part only of the present generation in China

will be possible to the whole of the next generation now attending the Elementary Schools: the Chinese people will speak one common language—that of the Mandarins.

Consequently the Chinese of the Mandarins has become the greatest good of modern China, because of all means it is the only one, the saving measure by which unity of State and nation can be accomplished. It is impossible to predict what may be the consequences of this reformed elementary education, soon to be followed by High Schools. The scope is so vast, so comprehensive. Everything pertaining to modern civilization is praised and explained in the reading-books of these schools of the people. A few years ago telegraphs, railways, telephones were of evil origin, sorceries of foreign devils, temples and tombs were obstacles in the way of tracks and roads. At the present moment railways, telegraphs, telephones, balloons, radio-telegraphy, everything that is modern and customary in Europe, is expounded in the national schools as the indispensable means to civilize China and put it on the same footing as the European States. Even Buddhist and Taoist temples are everywhere being equipped as schools—and it is well to notice the symbolic significance thereof. Idols are removed from temples: modern science walks in. This single fact means the complete mental revolution of a people of over four hun-

Temples equipped as schools

dred millions; and the aspect of the entire world will be altered by it.

Moreover, thousands of Chinese students go to Japan and America—a small minority come to Europe as well; they imbibe there the milk of modern science and new ideas and return to China, somewhat conceited and overbearing, but full of a sublime ideal: to devote their lives to the education of their native country. Amongst them there are numerous well-to-do people who become schoolmasters without taking any pay, from pure love of their ideal, and who disseminate knowledge as the apostles disseminated love.

The Chinese maligned.

The Chinese have always been abused as inferior, as dirty, cowardly, and cruel, and particularly as materialistic and egotistical. Missionaries, and even learned professors who ought to know better, joined in, and (as happens everywhere through mistaking external deteriorations for the original, ancient, internal essence) they described the Chinese as a nation of heathens, full of superstition and witchcraft, steeped in materialism and egotism, too much debased to feel devotion to high ideals. Only a few have always known that this characterization was untruthful. Those who had thoroughly got into touch with Chinese literature and philosophy, not as dry-as-dust philologues but as artists and philosophers, knew better what was the real essence of the Chinese national soul.

[College of Cardinals ratifies appointments made by the Pope and eighteen Cardinals receive the Red Hat. Diplomatic relations severed between Russia and Persia. The "Playboy of the Western World" presented by the Irish Players from Dublin in New York occasions riotous scenes in the theatre. President of Republic of Santo Domingo assassinated. Standard Oil Trust passes out of existence by Supreme Court decree. General Chang and Imperial army arrive at Nanking. Persian Cabinet dismisses Morgan Shuster, Treasurer General from the United States. Martial law declared in Teheran. Russian troops occupy Tabriz after nine days' siege. Dr. Sun Yat Sen, the revolutionary leader, arrives in Shanghai and is elected president of the Chinese Republic at Nanking. Revolutionists attack Hankow. Representatives of the government and revolutionists meet in Shanghai in a peace conference. General Tuan Fang, former envoy to Shan-si, is murdered by one of his soldiers. Revolutionists capture all the forts surrounding the walled city of Nanking. Prince Chun, regent and father of the infant Emperor Pu Yi, abdicates. Old Chinese calendar dropped and Roman substituted.

Prince Chun, Regent of China, abdicates.

REVOLUTION IN CHINA

(A.D. 1911)

J. ELLIS BARKER

A FEW days ago we received the news that suddenly, and almost simultaneously, a revolution had broken out in Hupeh, Hunan, and Szechuan. These three provinces are situated in the very heart of China, in the valley of the incomparable Yang-tse-kiang, China's principal highroad and trade artery. They have together about 125,000,000 inhabitants. They contain some of the greatest industrial, commercial, and mining centres of China, and they possess an importance comparable with that which Lancashire and Yorkshire have for Great Britain, and which the States of Massachusetts, Illinois, and Pennsylvania, with the towns of Boston, Chicago, St. Louis, Philadelphia, and Pittsburgh have for the United States. The position in China is extremely serious, and people are asking themselves, What are the causes of this sudden revolution, and what are its aims?

The position of China serious.

As the character of a revolution depends largely on the character of its leader, I would give a brief account of the impression which

I received from my intercourse with Dr. Sun Yat Sen. The Doctor is a man of medium height, slight but wiry, and is forty-five years old. He speaks good English. He is very quiet and reserved in manner, and extremely moderate, cautious, and thoughtful in speech. He gives one the impression of being rather a sound and thorough than a brilliant man, rather a thinker than a man of action. He does not care to use the dramatic eloquence which appeals to the imagination and the passions of the masses, and which is usually found in political and religious reformers of the ordinary kind. But then the Chinese are perhaps not so emotional as are most Eastern and Western nations. I have heard Dr. Sun Yat Sen addressing a meeting of his countrymen. He spoke quietly and almost monotonously with hardly any gestures, but the intent way in which his audience listened to every word—his speeches occupy often three and four hours, and even then his hearers never tire of listening to him—showed me the powerful effect which he was able to exercise over his hearers by giving them a simple account of the political position in China, of the sufferings of the people, and of the progress of the revolutionary movement.

The personality of Dr. Sun Yat Sen.

The majority of the Chinese in America are revolutionaries, and they worship their leader. Chinamen are commonly supposed to be sordid materialists, devoid of patriotism,

and interested only in money-making, who are always ready to sell their country to the enemy. The incorrectness of that widely held belief, and the influence of Dr. Sun Yat Sen, will be seen from the fact that the Chinese living outside China have given enormous sums to the revolutionary movement. According to the Doctor's statements, many have given him their entire fortune. Even the poorest shopkeepers and laundrymen contribute their mite.

The enormous sums given to the revolutionary movement.

Dr. Sun Yat Sen told me that he had millions of adherents, and described to me the organization of his society, which, with its self-supporting branches, its honorary presidents, etc., may be compared with the great political associations existing in Anglo-Saxon countries. The Doctor has led an agitator's life for more than twenty years. At first he was in favor of reform. He became a revolutionary when, at last, he recognized that all attempts to reform China by peaceful and orderly methods were quite hopeless. He told me that the revolutionary movement had received an enormous impetus when, during the short reform period inaugurated by the late Emperor, many thousands of students belonging to the best families had gone abroad, especially to Japan—in 1905 there were 10,000 Chinese students in Japan—who had come to see with their own eyes the hopeless backwardness of China, the tyranny of its Govern-

ment, and the necessity of thorough reform in order to save it from utter ruin. Thus, a very large number of men belonging to the educated, cultured, and privileged classes had become his supporters, and had spread the gospel of revolt all over the country. The Government knew the strength of the revolutionary party and feared it. A revolution would break out within two years. Practically the whole of the modern army, that is, that part of the army which has been drilled by Europeans and Japanese, were patriots, and were on the side of the revolution. The Government, being aware of this, relied for its defence on the ancient and unreformed military forces, hired cut-throats without the sense of patriotism, who fought merely for their pay. These guarded the magazines and arsenals, and were provided with plenty of ammunition. The modern army was left without ammunition. To ensure their harmlessness only five cartridges per man were allowed for firing practice, and only small parties of men were given cartridges at any time. The greatest needs of the revolutionaries were money and arms.—By the seizure of the important Hanyang arsenal and treasury, the revolutionaries have obtained both at the outset of their operations, and through their control of mines and factories they can manufacture all the implements, arms, and ammunition which they need.

China's modern army on side of revolutionists.

China has had about twenty dynasties, which have been introduced by as many revolutions, but China has remained unreformed. A change of dynasty is therefore no longer considered a remedy for China's ills. China has hitherto been governed by an absolutism which was supposed to be paternal, but which has become tyrannical. The people are tired of being misgoverned. They wish to govern themselves. The revolutionary party desires to convert China into a republic. China proper is a loose conglomerate of eighteen semi-independent provinces ruled by Viceroys. They are to be replaced by republics having Parliaments of their own. These local Parliaments will look after purely local affairs, while national affairs will be under the control of a supreme National Parliament. The Government of China will be modeled on that of the United States or of Canada, and all has been prepared for effecting such a change. In Dr. Sun Yat Sen's opinion, the Chinese people are able to govern themselves, being industrious, orderly, and docile, especially as they have been trained in the art of self-government and cooperation through their powerful guilds and secret societies. He told me that the Chinese were revolting not against the foreigners but against their corrupt Government, against the Manchus. The Europeans dwelling in China would be safe. A reformed China would be

New government to be modeled after the United States.

friendly to all nations, but it would expect to be treated as a civilized nation when it had earned the respect of Europe and could no longer be reproached with barbarism.

The revolution caused by mis-government.

The Chinese revolution is caused by the mis-government and corruption which are apparently inseparable from China's present form of government. In China there are about 400,000,000 Chinese and 5,000,000 Manchus. The latter, having conquered the country, reserved to themselves all positions of power and profit. They rule through a host of more or less irresponsible and venal officials, most of whom are Manchus. Self-preservation is the first instinct in men. Owing to their great numerical inferiority it was in the interest of the Manchus that the people should be weak, ignorant, unwarlike, and disunited. Therefore the chief aim of the Manchu policy was not to maintain the integrity of the country and to promote the welfare of the people, but to preserve the power of the ruling caste and to keep the people in subjection. Intercourse with foreign nations would have been profitable to the Chinese traders, and it would have enlightened the Chinese people. However, the enlightenment of the people might become dangerous to the small ruling caste. Therefore the Manchu officials preached hatred to the foreigners, who were excluded from the country. To the Manchus a disastrous war was a smaller calamity than

the existence of a national army which might overthrow them. So the Chinese army was neglected, and the country was humiliated and despoiled by all nations. Modern industries and railways would have increased the national prosperity, but as both would have increased the power and cohesion of the people, the introduction of both was forbidden. The people prayed for good and honest government. However, as the officials were Manchus they had to be humored to ensure their fidelity and support, and thus they were allowed to prey upon the people. During two and a half centuries the Chinese were ruled by an absolute and corrupt bureaucracy, and their taskmasters were aliens.

The teachings of Confucianism.

Confucianism, the prevailing doctrine of China, is neither a religion nor a system of transcendental or cosmic philosophy. It is an agnostic system of ethics, and a system of practical, and purely temporal, common-sense philosophy which sees no further than this earth. It takes practically no notice whatever of the question of an after-life, of eternity, of future rewards and punishments, of God. It teaches merely that one ought to do good because it is man's duty to do good. Confucianism is entirely concerned with the relations between man and man, and it deals very fully with the question of government, with the administration of justice, and other practical matters. Confucianism is the most demo-

cratic of doctrines. It condemns in the most unsparing terms governmental absolutism and favoritism, the appointment of incompetent officials, and official tyranny and extortion—the very evils which exist in China. All Chinese study the Classics as soon as they have mastered the alphabet.

Official appointments have, until lately, been made solely on the strength of purely literary attainments, although we read in the Confucian Analects, "Though a man be able to recite the three hundred odes but be incapable as an administrator or an ambassador, and cannot work without assistance, of what practical use is then his knowledge?"

Chinese literature is extremely rich in telling proverbs. Many of these insist on the supremacy of the people: "The people's will is the will of Heaven." Others emphasize the authority of the law, and complain of the tyranny of officialdom, the venality of the judges, and the necessity of forming secret societies for the mutual protection of the people. A proverb says: "The mandarin derives his power from the law, the people from the secret societies." Another warns us: "The doors of the law courts stand wide open, but you had better not enter if you are only strong in right, but not strong in cash." Another tells us: "The friendship of mandarins impoverishes; that of merchants makes rich." Chinese literature.

The foregoing extracts suffice to show that

the tyrannical misgovernment, official incompetence and obstructive conservatism prevalent throughout China are not due to the influence of Confucianism, as has hitherto been believed in the West. They are opposed to Confucianism, and are condemned by it.

The condition of the Chinese people.

The condition of the Chinese people has been well described by Dr. Sun Yat Sen, in 1897, in the following words, which incidentally show his great literary ability and power and his wonderful command of the English language:

"The form of rule which obtains in China at present may be summed up in a few words. The people have no say whatever in the management of imperial, national, or even municipal affairs. The mandarins, or local magistrates, have full power of adjudication, from which there is no appeal. Their word is law and they have full scope to practise their machinations with complete irresponsibility, and every officer may fatten himself with impunity. Extortion by officials is an institution. It is the condition on which they take office; and it is only when the bleeder is a bungler that the Government steps in with pretended benevolence to ameliorate, but more often to complete, the depletion.

"English readers are probably unaware of the smallness of the established salaries of provincial magnates. They will scarcely credit that the Viceroy of, say, Canton, ruling a coun-

try with a population larger than that of Great Britain, is allowed as his legal salary the paltry sum of £60 a year; so that, in order to live and maintain himself in office, accumulating fabulous riches the while, he resorts to extortion and the selling of justice. So with education. The results of examinations are the one means of obtaining official notice. Granted that a young scholar gains distinction, he proceeds to seek public employment and, by bribing the Peking authorities, an official post is hoped for. Once obtained, as he cannot live on his salary, perhaps he even pays so much annually for his post, licence to squeeze is the result, and the man must be stupid indeed who cannot, when backed up by the Government, make himself rich enough to buy a still higher post in a few years. With advancement comes increased licence and additional facilities for his enrichment, so that the cleverest 'squeezer' ultimately can obtain money enough to purchase the highest positions.

The corruption of the officials.

"This official thief, with his mind warped by his mode of life, is the ultimate authority in all matters of social, political, and criminal life. It is a fatal system, an *imperium in imperio,* an unjust autocracy which thrives by its own rottenness. But this system of fattening on the public vitals—the selling of power—is the chief means by which the Manchu dynasty continues to exist. With this legalized corruption stamped as the highest ideal of gov-

ernment, who can wonder at the existence of a strong undercurrent of dissatisfaction among the people?

The masses kept in ignorance.

"The masses of China, although kept officially in ignorance of what is going on in the world around them, are anything but stupid people. All European authorities on this matter state that the latent ability of the Chinese is considerable; and many place it even above that of the masses in any other country, European and Asiatic. Books on politics are not allowed; daily newspapers are prohibited in China; the world around, its people and politics, are shut out; while none below the grade of a mandarin of the seventh rank is allowed to read Chinese geography, far less foreign. The laws of the present dynasty are *not* for public reading; they are known only to the highest officials. The reading of books on military subjects is, in common with that of all other prohibited matter, not only forbidden but is even punishable by death. None is allowed on pain of death to invent anything new, or to make known any new discovery. In this way are the people kept in darkness, while the Government doles out to them what scraps of information it finds will suit its own needs.

"The 'Literati' of China are allowed to study only the Chinese Classics and the commentaries thereon. These consist of the writings of the old philosophers, the works of Confucius and others. But even of these, all parts

relating to the criticism of their superiors are carefully expunged, and only those parts are published for public reading which teach obedience to authorities as the essence of all instruction. In this way is China ruled—or rather misruled—namely, by the enforcement of blind obedience to all existing laws and formalities.

"To keep the masses in ignorance is the constant endeavor of Chinese rule."

Matters have very slightly improved since 1897. Still, the position is in the main as it was then, and the people are worse off than they were fourteen years ago, through the very great increase in taxation, and its constantly growing arbitrariness.

The revolutionary principles of Dr. Sun Yat Sen.

The revolutionary principles of Dr. Sun Yat Sen were laid down in a pamphlet of his entitled "The Solution of the Chinese Question," which was published in 1904. As far as I know there is no English translation of that important pamphlet. Some of its most important passages are as follows:

"The Chinese have no real Government. The term 'the Chinese Government' is a term without meaning. The Manchus were a tribe of savage nomads who wandered about the deserts of the Amur before they came in contact with the Chinese. Often they made inroads into China and plundered the peaceful inhabitants near the frontier. Towards the end of the Ming dynasty civil war broke out in

The Chinese conquered by the Manchus.

China and, taking advantage of the confusion, the Manchus conquered Peking. That was in 1644. The Chinese did not want to be enslaved by foreigners, and offered a desperate resistance. To overcome the opposition, the Manchus massacred millions of people, warriors and peaceful inhabitants, old and young, women and children. They burned their houses and forced the Chinese people to adopt the Manchu costume. Tens of thousands of people were killed for disobeying their orders to wear the queue. After terrible slaughter the Chinese were forced to submit to the Manchu laws.

"The first measure of the conquerors was to keep the people in ignorance. They destroyed and burned the Chinese libraries and books. They prohibited the formation of societies and the holding of meetings for the discussion of public affairs. Their aim was to destroy the patriotic spirit of the Chinese to such a degree that they should in course of time forget that they had to obey foreign laws. The Manchus number 5,000,000, whilst the Chinese number about 400,000,000. Hence the conquerors live under the constant fear that the Chinese should wake up and reconquer their country.

"It is generally believed among the people in the West that the Chinese wish to keep themselves apart from foreign nations and that the Chinese ports could be opened to for-

eign trade only at the point of the bayonet. That belief is erroneous. History furnishes us with many proofs that before the arrival of the Manchus the Chinese were in close relations with the neighboring countries, and that they evinced no dislike towards foreign traders and missionaries. Buddhism was introduced into China by an Emperor of the Han dynasty, and the people received the new religion with enthusiasm. Foreign merchants were allowed to travel freely through the Empire. During the Ming dynasty there was no anti-foreign spirit. The first minister became Roman Catholic, and his intimate friend, Mathieu Ricci, the Jesuit missionary in Peking, was held in high esteem by the people.

"With the arrival of the Manchus the ancient policy of toleration gradually changed. The country was entirely closed to foreign commerce. The missionaries were driven out. The Chinese Christians were massacred. Chinamen were forbidden to emigrate. Disobedience was punished with death. Why? Simply because the Manchus wished to exclude foreigners and desired the people to hate them for fear that the Chinese, enlightened by the foreigners, might wake up to a sense of their nationality. The anti-foreign spirit created by the Manchus came to its climax in the Boxer Risings of 1900, and the leaders of that movement were none other than members of the reigning family.

Anti-foreign spirit created by the Manchus.

"It is therefore clear that the policy of exclusion practised by China is the result of Manchu egotism. It is not approved of by the majority of the Chinese. Foreigners traveling in China have often remarked that they are better received by the people than by the officials.

"During the 260 years of the Tartar rule we have suffered countless wrongs, and the principal are the following:

The principal wrongs inflicted by the Manchus.

"1. The Manchurian Tartars govern for the benefit of their race and not for that of their subjects.

"2. They oppose our intellectual and material progress.

"3. They treat us as a subject race and deny us the rights and privileges of equality.

"4. They violate our inalienable rights to life, liberty, and property.

"5. They promote and encourage the corruption of officialdom.

"6. They suppress the liberty of speech.

"7. They tax us heavily and unjustly without our consent.

"8. They practise the most barbarous tortures.

"9. They deprive us unjustly of our rights.

"10. They do not fulfil their duty of protecting the life and the property of the people living under their jurisdiction. . . .

"Although we have reasons to hate the Manchus we have tried to live in peace with them,

but without success. Therefore we, the Chinese people, have resolved to adopt pacific measures, if possible, and violent ones if necessary, in order to be treated with justice and to establish peace in the Far East and throughout the world. . . .

"A new Government, an enlightened and progressive Government, must be substituted for the old one. When that has been done China will not only be able to free herself from her troubles, but also may be able to deliver other nations from the necessity of defending their independence and integrity. Among the Chinese there are many of high culture who, we believe, are able to undertake the task of forming a new Government. Carefully thought out plans have been made for a long time for transforming the old Chinese monarchy into a republic.

The masses ready for new government.

"The masses of the people are ready to receive a new form of Government. They wish for a change of their political and social conditions in order to escape from the deplorable conditions of life prevailing at present. The country is in a state of tension. It is like a sun-scorched forest, and the slightest spark may set fire to it. The people are ready to drive the Tartars out. Our task is great. It is difficult, but not impossible."

Dr. Sun Yat Sen's assertions, contained in the foregoing, that a reformed China would "establish peace in the Far East and through-

out the world," seems at first sight rather exaggerated. However, I think there can be no doubt that a reform of China, a reform which would regenerate the country, would tend not only to establish peace in the Far East but would also tend to diminish the dangers of war threatening Europe and America. The greatest danger to the peace in the Far East lies undoubtedly in China's weakness. As long as China is weak, Russia, Japan, and other nations desirous of expansion will feel tempted to acquire Chinese territory; and as a peaceful partition of China among the numerous claimants is out of the question, a weak China will continue to be a danger, not merely to the peace of Asia, but to that of Europe and America as well. But for China's weakness the Russo-Japanese War would never have occurred. China's weakness has caused in the past dangerous friction between Russia and England, between France and England, between Germany and England, and between the United States and Japan, and it has more than once raised the spectre of war between these countries. The Sick Man of the East is as great a danger to the peace of the world as is the Sick Man of the West.

China's weakness cause of Russo-Japanese War.

Dr. Sun Yat Sen states that a reformed China "will not only be able to free herself from her troubles, but may be able to deliver other nations from the necessity of defending their independence and integrity." He evidently

refers to the small nations on the frontiers of China, such as Thibet, which used to stand under China's protection, and which at present are unable to defend themselves against the Powers of the West.

Many European officers and other competent observers who have lived in China—I could mention several prominent generals, admirals, and administrators, and among them General Gordon—are of opinion that the Chinese, if properly trained and led, will make excellent soldiers. Some believe that the Chinese, owing to their extremely hardy constitution, their great endurance and marching power, and their contempt of death, are the best military material in the world. A country with 400,000,000 inhabitants can of course raise very large armies. The late Sir Robert Hart prophesied that China would create an army of 30,000,000 men. She could undoubtedly do this if she introduced universal and compulsory military service on the model of Germany and France. But let us not forget that large armies provided with modern weapons and the numerous and extremely costly appliances indispensable in modern warfare are very costly luxuries, and that China is, and will for many years remain, a very poor country. Besides the larger an army is, the greater are the difficulties of transporting and provisioning it. The Huns could travel without baggage when invading

The Chinese properly trained make excellent soldiers.

Europe. Nowadays the transport of the impedimenta of an army offers infinitely greater difficulties than the transport of the men themselves. The idea of a score of millions of Chinamen overrunning and overwhelming India, Asiatic Russia, and Europe, cannot be seriously discussed except by those who are ignorant not only of military affairs but also of China's geographical position. The peculiarities of China's geographical position will be clear from the following figures:

China's peculiar geographical position.

	Area sq. miles.	Population.
China proper (18 Provinces)	1,532,420	407,253,030
Manchuria	363,610	16,000,000
Mongolia	1,367,600	2,600,000
Thibet	463,200	6,500,000
Chinese Turkestan	550,340	1,200,000
Total of the Chinese Empire	4,277,170	433,553,030
United Kingdom	121,391	45,000,000

The foregoing table shows that the eighteen Provinces of China proper, with their 400,000,000 inhabitants, occupy only a little more than one-third of the gigantic territory of all China. If we look at the map we find that China is almost isolated from the outer world, for those parts of China which do not touch the sea are separated from the neighbor nations by an enormous belt of deserts and mountains which make an invasion by large foreign armies across the land frontiers and an attack by large Chinese armies upon her Continental neighbors equally difficult if not impossible.

The populous provinces of China proper are separated from British India by the tremendous mountain wastes of Thibet, a country which is almost four times as large as the whole of the United Kingdom, and they are separated from Russia by the enormous deserts of Mongolia and Turkestan, which together are fifteen times as large as the United Kingdom. Yet these countries have together only 10,000,000 inhabitants. We can best represent to ourselves their desolation and the sparsity of their inhabitants by imagining that the whole of the United Kingdom was inhabited by 500,000 people, a number which would correspond to the population of the outlying portions of China.

If ever there was a people rightly struggling to be free it is the Chinese. The Chinese deserve the sympathy of the world in their struggle for freedom and for good popular government. England and the United States, the great protagonists of popular government in every country, are considered to be the fairest nations by the people in the Far East, who are aware that Great Britain and the United States have in the past invariably shown their active sympathy for all nations struggling for freedom. Many Chinamen have told me that they look to Great Britain and to the United States for sympathy and encouragement in their attempt to rid themselves of an odious tyranny, and that they look for their active support and

China's confidence in England and the United States.

assistance in the event that other nations should try to occupy Chinese territory at a time when the Chinese are fighting among themselves. Intervention in the present struggle is possible only from the sea. No nation, and no combination of nations, can interfere in this Chinese civil war without England's assent, and her toleration of foreign intervention would be equivalent to her assent. England has a great responsibility in the present struggle, and has a great task to perform.

Nobel prizes awarded.

[Settlement reached between British railway companies and labor unions. King of Sweden gives Nobel prizes to Mme. Curie (chemistry), Professor Wien (physics), Professor Gullstrand (medicine) and Maurice Maeterlinck (literature). Two hundred Russian workmen drowned in Volga by collapse of a bridge under construction. Australian antarctic expedition under Dr. Manson sails from Hobart, Tasmania. International Opium Congress held at The Hague. James B. McNamara on trial at Los Angeles admits that he dynamited the Los Angeles *Times* Building on Oct. 1, 1910, causing the death of twenty-one persons. Naval experts report that the wreck of the *Maine* in Havana harbor was the result of an external explosion. Earthquakes in Nicaragua and in Mexico City. Death of John Bigelow, author, diplomat, and lawyer (ninety-four years).

THE NET RESULTS OF KING GEORGE'S INDIAN TOUR

(A.D. 1911)

SAINT NIHAL SINGH

WHILE the world at large regarded the expedition as a holiday jaunt, from the moment the announcement was made that the King, accompanied by his Consort, had determined to grace the Delhi Durbar of 1911 with his presence, Indians looked upon it as an epoch-making incident, which was destined to change the trend of their history. Though George V. was only a limited Monarch in England, he was the all-powerful Emperor of India, and it was said in public and private that his Majesty's pronouncements during his sojourn in his Eastern Empire would prove in keeping with the momentous nature of the visit. In reviewing the King-Emperor's speeches and proclamations, it is necessary to bear these anticipations in mind.

The King's speeches in India.

The most dominant note in his Majesty's Indian utterances was his ecstasy at being in Hindostan. The phrasing of this sentiment was always happy, exuberant, natural, honest, and strikingly convincing.

The King pointed his index-finger at the

real meaning of his Indian visit in the following passage from his Durbar speech:

". . . By my presence with the Queen-Empress I am . . . anxious to show our affection for the loyal Princes and faithful Peoples of India, and how dear to our hearts is the welfare and happiness of the Indian Empire. . . .

"Finally, I rejoice to have this opportunity of renewing in my own person those assurances which have been given you by my revered predecessors of the maintenance of your rights and privileges, and of my earnest concern for your welfare, peace, and contentment."

Here, then, India and the whole world has from Royal lips, in so many words, the object of objects of the Imperial tour.

The object of the tour.

Those who have not paid close attention to the development of India during the last decade will fail to grasp the utility of the King taking a long ocean voyage covering twelve thousand miles and lasting three weeks, each way, just to outline his policy toward his Indian subjects, especially in view of the fact that immediately after he was called to the throne of his ancestors, on May 23, 1910, George V. issued the following message to the people of Hindostan:

"Queen Victoria of revered memory addressed Her Indian subjects and the heads of the Feudatory States when she assumed the direct government in 1858, and Her august son,

my father of honored and beloved name, commemorated the same most notable event in his address to you fifty-eight years later. These are the charters of the noble and benignant spirit of Imperial rule, and by that spirit in all my time to come I will faithfully abide."

Nor will these critics realize the usefulness of his Majesty iterating and reiterating sentiments, for instance, like this:

". . . It shall ever be our earnest endeavor to promote the welfare of our Indian Empire, and we fervently hope that the years as they pass will ever strengthen the feeling of warm attachment that exists between my house and my Indian people."

But those who have followed the history of what is loosely termed "Indian unrest," and those familiar with the Indian psychology, without the least stretch of the imagination will understand that it was every bit worth his while for King George to go out to his Eastern Empire and personally pledge his word that all the promises previously made guaranteeing that the British will do everything in their power to develop their Indian charges, and that their Sovereign will see to it that their inalienable rights as men and citizens are in no way usurped. Rightly or wrongly—this is not the place nor the occasion to discuss this point—the impression went abroad in educated India, toward the middle

"Indian unrest."

of the last decade, that the English pledges which Hindostan had cherished as its constitution outlining its civil rights, were not being and never would be fulfilled. An important section of the younger and more impetuous generation of Indians, trained in Occidental academies, especially, lost all faith in Great Britain's intention to carry out its covenants. The extreme wing even went to the length of declaring that the Proclamations were not worth the parchment on which they were written. A bitter agitation—waged in a perfectly constitutional manner by the majority of the educated Indians, but permitted to degenerate into an anarchistic ebullition by the impatient idealists—was the natural outcome of this spirit of mistrust of the British intent to fulfil what sarcastically were described as their "pious" and "generous" resolves. With the commencement of the Georgian *régime* it was meet and proper that an attempt should be made to deal a final blow to the spirit of suspicion. No one can study the speeches made by his Majesty during his stay in India without coming to the conclusion that he embarked on this trip with the single-hearted purpose of delivering a fatal stroke to the agencies which have been working for the separation of India from the British Empire—a contingency regarded as a calamity alike by all sane Indians and by the English.

The agencies working for the separation of India from the British Empire.

Whatever may have been the motives which

impelled his Majesty to set his face toward India, whatever the remarks of those who spoke lightly of his mission, and whatever the warnings of the timid councillors who feared for the safety of the Sovereign's person, or who were apprehensive about the results of his mission, now that the King has finished the task he undertook to perform in this instance, no candid writer can survey the events connected with the visit without unhesitatingly affirming that the Royal progress of India has been a tremendous personal triumph for him. From the moment he landed in Bombay to the instant he stepped off Indian soil he has shown an unexcelled sense of proportion and responsibility, consummate tact in dealing with prince and peasant, and a superb grasp of the Indian's psychology and Hindostan's problems. The most carping critic is unable to find fault with what he personally did, or what he himself said. Wherever he went he received the most loyal and cordial welcome. Whatever he said and did was vociferously acclaimed. According to all accounts, never has the enthusiasm of India been roused to such a high pitch as by King George's progress through the country. All reports testify that his Majesty has left the most pleasant impressions behind him.

The King's consummate tact.

An incident hitherto unnoticed by the British public, probably more than anything else, demonstrates the success which has crowned

the King's Indian trip. After the Durbar crowd had dispersed and their Majesties departed, some bare-headed people approached the daïs and bent themselves double before the thrones that, a short time before, had been occupied by the King-Emperor and Queen-Empress. Their attitude was so reverent that it almost seemed that the "white Maharaja and Maharani" had been included in the Hindu pantheon, which already is said to contain 330,000,000 deities, and that their devotees were performing their worship before the empty chairs—which, having been touched by the loved god and goddess, partook of their very essence, just as the relics of such saints as Buddha are venerated. But the curious part of it was that the men who were almost prostrate on the floor before the empty thrones belonged to the Bengali race, which, during recent years, has been depicted in the British Press as seeking to wage war upon his Majesty, spreading the terrorist movement in India, and boycotting English products—a community which has been maligned and execrated all over the English-speaking world. The conversion of "dangerous agitators" into loyal subjects is an accomplishment to be highly prized. This incident in itself is conclusive testimony to the effect of the King's personal magnetism upon the people of Hindostan, but if considered together with the exuberant loyalty displayed by Bengal during

The "white Maharaja and Maharani."

their Majesties' stay in Calcutta, it assumes a still deeper significance.

Since the days when he went to India as Prince of Wales, King George has urged that "sympathy" should be made the predominant note of Indian Government. He has taken the wise stand that an alien administration, no matter how honest and efficient it may be, no matter how just, no matter how much it is conducted in the true and abiding interests of the governed, if it lacks the gentle touch of sympathy, becomes a soul-crushing burden to the ruled. Patience born of fatalism may endure it without complaint, but it is galling, even though quietly borne. An administration which permits a dull-sensed bureaucracy to interdict all heart-forces from the realm of government is bound to be like gall and wormwood to an imaginative, impulsive, emotional people like the Indians. To rule them in that fashion is sheer folly. King George, since his tour through India in 1905, has persistently sought to introduce and strengthen the element of sympathy in the Indian domination. During his recent visit, especially, he repeatedly and emphatically expressed his warm feelings for his Indian subjects, and by his actions seared the word "sympathy" on the souls of his officials. What wonder that the chords in the hearts of all peoples of the Peninsula throbbed at his gentle touch, and that Hindostan responded to his friendly advances more

Sympathy in administration needed.

cordially than it ever did to a Hindu or Moslem Emperor?

The twelfth of December of Anno Domini 1911 established the fact, beyond cavil, that the Indians were not wrong in their estimate of the powers and intentions of their *Imperator,* when the following boons were bestowed by the generous Royal hand:—

The royal gifts.

(1) The grant of half a month's pay to all soldiers, British and Indian, all sailors of the Royal and Indian Marine, and all subordinate civilians drawing fees less than fifty rupees (£3 6s. 8d.) a month;

(2) making officers and men of the Indian Army eligible for the Victoria Cross;

(3) the release of certain prisoners undergoing sentences for crimes and misdemeanors;

(4) the discharge of all civil debtors whose liabilities were small and due, not to fraud, but to real poverty, and the payment of their obligations;

(5) the setting aside of fifty lakhs (£300,000) for the promotion of education, with the promise of further grants in future years on a generous scale;

(6) the transfer of the seat of Government of the Indian Empire from Calcutta to Delhi; and

(7) the establishment of a Governorship of Bengal, with a new Lieutenant-Governorship for Behar, Chota-Nagpur, and Orissa, and a Chief Commissionership in Assam.

In this circumstance, it seems strange that December 12, 1911, should be marked on the calendar as a day when, so far as India was concerned, there existed no British Parliament whatsoever. Of course, the Houses of Lords and Commons were both promised the opportunity of discussing the changes when they reassembled. But as Lord Lansdowne aptly put it:

Lord Lansdowne quoted.

"Nothing that this House can say or do can alter what has been announced by his Majesty. . . . The word of the King-Emperor has been passed, and that word is irrevocable."

Not only are the Commoners and Lords deprived of their power to legislate in this instance, but they cannot, in the circumstances, even express their feelings with their accustomed freedom.

The first five boons, viz., the grant of half a month's pay to all soldiers, sailors of the Royal and Indian Marine, and subordinate civilians drawing small salaries; making Indians eligible for the Victoria Cross; the release of certain prisoners; the discharge of civil debtors and the payment of their debts; and the grant of fifty lakhs of rupees for the promotion of education, call for little comment. They have been well received. Some extremists have shown a disposition to criticise the third boon, because his Majesty did not order the release of Indians in prison for political offences. Others would have liked it

better if the Emperor had given a larger initial grant-in-aid for education. However, the general public in India have considered it more graceful to accept the "gift horse" without "looking it in the mouth."

The remaining two changes have called forth considerable criticism, both favorable and unfavorable.

The change of capital, naturally, is hailed or decried, according to whether the vested interests of the critics and their friends are affected by it or not.

When the fire of contention has spent itself, and the people are able to take a more dispassionate view of the Emperor's Indian visit, probably the incident connected with it that will loom the largest will be the one which has received the smallest attention—the King's pronouncement on the expansion of India's educational system. Leaving aside the grant of £300,000, and the promise of further aid "in future years on a generous scale," the King's declaration of the educational policy which hereafter is to be pursued in Hindostan deserves especial attention. In his speech at Calcutta on January 6th, in reply to the address of the Calcutta University, he said:

The gift for education.

"It is my wish that there may be spread over the land a network of schools and colleges from which will go forth loyal and manly and useful citizens, able to hold their own in industries and agriculture, and all the vocations

in life, and it is my wish, too, that the homes of my Indian subjects may be brightened and their labor sweetened by the spread of knowledge, with all that follows in its train—a higher level of thought, of comfort, and of health. It is through education that my wish will be fulfilled, and the cause of education in India will ever be very close to my heart."

There is only one other document in existence in the whole world to which this passage can be compared, and that is the Rescript on Education issued by his Imperial Majesty Mitsuhito, Emperor of Japan. In order to turn the faces of his subjects from the darkness of the Middle Ages to the light of advancing civilization, the Ruler of the Sunrise Kingdom declared his educational policy in the following words:

Japan's educational policy.

"The acquirement of knowledge is essential to a successful life. All knowledge, from that necessary for daily life to that higher knowledge necessary to prepare officials, farmers, merchants, artisans, physicians, etc., for their respective vocations, is acquired by learning. A long time has elapsed since schools were first started in this country. But for the farmers, artisans, and merchants, and also for women, learning was regarded as beyond their sphere, owing to some misapprehension in the way of school administration. Even among the higher classes much time was spent in the useless occupation of writing poetry and com-

posing maxims, instead of learning what would be for their benefit or that of the State. Now an educational system has been established, and the schedules of study remodeled. It is designed that education shall be so diffused that there may not be a village with an ignorant family, or a family with an ignorant member."

This Rescript to-day is worshipped by the Japanese people—for the achievements of Modern Nippon, and its future prosperity, are based upon it.

The educational policy of the Indian Government.

In the humble opinion of the writer, when all else is forgotten, the King's words about the educational policy that the Indian Government should pursue, if his suggestions are loyally and generously carried out, will be remembered. Posterity, proud of Hindostan's intellectual, spiritual, and economical stability and progress, will point to the first trip undertaken by the "White Maharaja," in 1911 and 1912, during the course of which the first definite pronouncement was made to accelerate the speed and multiply the power of the machinery which is removing the stigma of ignorance and superstition from twentieth-century India. If his Majesty had done naught else but this, the money, time, and trouble involved in the visit would wisely and well have been spent.

[1912: Duke of Connaught visits Mr. Whitelaw Reid in New York, and is received

by President Taft at the White House. Cardinal Farley arrives in New York after his elevation to the Cardinalate, and impressive ceremonies take place in his honor at St. Patrick's Cathedral, New York. Cardinal Bourne makes a first entry into Westminster Cathedral, the first of its kind in England since the Reformation. The King of Sweden promises a bill insuring full political rights to women. The Norwegian Storthing passes a measure admitting women to public office. First important naval engagement of the war occurs in the Red Sea, Italian cruisers sinking seven Turkish gunboats. Fire in Osaka, Japan, destroys 5,000 buildings and renders 30,000 persons homeless. Taft commutes the sentence of Charles W. Morse, sentenced two years ago to fifteen years' imprisonment for manipulation of bank funds. Taft signs proclamation admitting New Mexico as the forty-seventh State. Robert Bacon resigns as American ambassador to France. Fire destroys the building of the Equitable Life Assurance, occupying one block in New York City, resulting in the death of Battalion Chief Walsh and five others. Members of the British Miners' Federation declare a general strike for March 1. House committee which investigated Pure Food Controversy sustains Dr. H. W. Wiley. General strike in Lisbon. Cathedral at Khartoum, a memorial to General Gordon, consecrated. Russian steamer *Russ* founders in

New Mexico admitted as State.

Black Sea with 172 persons on board. A wage reduction in Massachusetts results in strike in cotton mills and factories of Lawrence, Mass. New world's speed for aeroplanes (88 miles an hour) made by Jules Védrines at Pau. Death of Rear-Admiral Robley D. Evans. United States cruiser *Maryland* ordered to Guayaquil, Ecuador, to protect American interests. Dr. Sun Yat Sen inaugurated at Nanking as provisional president of the New Republic. Empress Dowager contributed $2,000,000 to fight the revolutionists. Bomb thrown at Premier Yuan Shih-kai at Peking kills two of his guards. Key West Extension of the Florida East Coast Railway opened. King George and Queen Mary return to England after three months' absence in India. Asquith introduces his Irish Home Rule bill into Parliament, and it passes its first reading in House of Commons. Taft sends special message to Congress dealing with the high cost of living and the relations between capital and labor. Taft signs proclamation admitting Arizona as the forty-eighth State in the Union. Death of Lord Lister, discoverer of antiseptic treatment in surgical operations (eighty-five years). Manchu dynasty comes to an end with abdication of the child emperor Pu Yi and the recognition of the republic. Sun Yat Sen sends Wong Chung Ting to the United States as special representative, and the State Department is officially notified of the formation

Dr. Sun Yat Sen inaugurated as provisional president of China.

of the Chinese Republic. Dowager Empress signs a decree directing the Premier to cooperate with the Republicans at Nanking to establish Republic, and National Assembly grants Imperial family a pension of $2,400,000 a year. Myron T. Herrick confirmed by Senate as Ambassador to France. House passed army appropriation bill, abolishing five regiments of cavalry and increasing the term of enlistment to five years. Norwegian Cabinet resigned. Demonstration for Home Rule in Ireland participated in by 15,000 people in Trafalgar Square, London. Yuan Shih-kai elected President of the Chinese Republic by the National Assembly. Corner-stone of the National Maine Monument laid in New York City. Railroad officials and steel-rail manufacturers confer in New York in an effort to produce safer rails. Conferences in London between representatives of British coal operators and miners. Disastrous fire entailing loss of several millions at Houston, Texas. Severe wind storm in New York State. Hundred miners entombed by fire in a coal mine in Oklahoma. National Assembly of China elects as vice-president General Li Yuen Hung, commander of the revolutionary army. Yuan Shih-kai accepts the Presidency of the Republic of China. Two thousand revolutionary troops mutiny at Peking and set fire to the city. Colombian minister to the United States recalled. Italian Parliament reopened with

Yuan Shih-kai elected President of China.

royal decree proclaiming the annexation of Tripoli and Cyrenaica ratified two days later by Senate. Italian force attempting to occupy the oasis of Zanzur, near Tripoli, defeated. Italian fleet sinks several Turkish war vessels at Beirut, Syria, and damages life and property in the city. Martial law proclaimed at Beirut, and the Italian Government denied that the city was bombarded. Italian army uses dirigible balloons for the first time in warfare. Two air-ships drop bombs in Turkish camp at Zanzur. Philander C. Knox, American Secretary of State, and party visit Latin American republics bordering on the Caribbean. First of a series of conferences between anthracite mine-workers and operators in New York; the miners demanding eight hours a day and twenty per cent increase in wages (refused two weeks later). Hungarian Cabinet resigns. General Orozco, military governor of Chihuahua, Mexico, turns against the Madero government and seizes the State for the revolutionists. Lloyd George announces that two-thirds of the British cabinet are in favor of woman suffrage. City of Juarez falls into the hands of the revolutionists, who dynamite the National Bank of Mexico. A monster demonstration in favor of peace and the government is held in Mexico City. The United States Senate ratifies the general treaties of arbitration with Great Britain and France with important amendments.

Hungarian Cabinet resigns.

Regiments of United States troops are sent to the Mexican border. German naval bill provides for sixty large ships and forty cruisers. House passes a bill declaring all citizens of Porto Rico to be citizens of the United States. Senate authorizes the President to prohibit the shipping of war materials into Mexico. Government's suit against Sugar Trust is begun in New York. Chinese outbreak spreads to Tientsin, foreign troops (including 200 Americans) arriving in Peking restore quiet (5,000 persons killed during troubles). Yuan Shih-kai is inaugurated President and proclaims a general amnesty. Coal miners (1,000,000 men) go on strike in Great Britain. Bristol dock workers refuse to handle foreign coal; more than 300 trains are withdrawn, and the sailings of many steamships are cancelled. Captain Roald Amundsen arrives at Hobart, Tasmania, and announces that his expedition planted the Norwegian flag at the South Pole, Dec. 14, 1911. National Assembly in China grants to women the right to vote if they can read and write, and if they own property. Russia withdraws from the "six nation" controversy. Swedish Government introduces a bill in Parliament extending the franchise to women, and the right to sit in Parliament on the same conditions as men. Floods on banks of Mississippi, Missouri, and Ohio rivers. Robert F. Scott's vessel returns to New Zealand reporting that the expedition arrived

Captain Amundsen reaches the South Pole.

within 150 miles of the South Pole. The Minimum Wage Bill passed by British House of Lords. Bill providing an eight-hour day for miners passes the French Chamber. French protectorate established over Morocco. War Department of the United States sends 1,000 rifles to the American Legation in Mexico for its own use. Two hundred insurgents executed in Canton. Battleship *Florida* attains speed of 22.58 knots (a new record). Hulk of battleship *Maine* is raised from bottom of Havana harbor and buried in the open sea with impressive ceremonies; remains of officers and men are buried at Arlington. Failure of all attempts to arbitrate the British coal strike. About 175,000 coal miners strike in Germany. Coal strike averted in Belgium. Nine weeks' strike of textile workers ended at Lawrence, Mass. (more than 125,000 persons in New England obtained advances of from five to seven per cent. as a result). Suffragettes smash hundreds of windows in London (150 women arrested). Sun-power plant sent from Philadelphia at Khedive's order to irrigate the Nile Valley (10,000 horse-power, and expected to take the place of over 2,500 laborers). Floods in Mississippi Valley cover 200 square miles, render 30,000 persons homeless (damage, $10,000,000).]

The hulk of the Maine raised and sunk at sea.

THE TITANIC DISASTER

(A.D. 1912)

E. S.

First news of disaster.

ON the morning of April the fifteenth the whole civilized world was stunned with horror and grief at the news that had come by wireless "out of the deep" that the passenger steamship *Titanic,* of the White Star Line, had sunk. She was not only the largest ship the world had ever seen, but the most magnificent vessel that had ever proudly floated on the breast of the mighty monster—Ocean. She was 883 feet long, 92½ feet broad, and 104 feet high from keel to bridge. She had eight steel decks, a cellular double bottom; and to drive her engines—the last expression of marine engineering—29 enormous boilers and 159 furnaces. To man and run her was a crew of 860, including 320 engineers and 65 engaged in her navigation. All her structure was of steel, of weight, size, and thickness greater than ever used before on any ship.

Her interior fittings and furnishings were superb, and she was provided with Turkish baths, gymnasiums, elevators, and all the luxuries that are to be found on land. The vari-

ous decks, saloons, libraries, palm-gardens, etc., were so extensive that it was more than easy to lose one's way. As the huge *Titanic* left its dock at Southampton, an incident occurred that many passengers at the time regarded as an evil omen. The *New York,* moored to the side of the dock, broke from her cables, charmed by the greater ship, and "crept slowly and stealthily, as if drawn by some invisible force which she was powerless to withstand," to quote from one of the witnesses on the *Titanic's* deck. It was only with the greatest difficulty that she was hauled back.

Number of passengers and crew.

Thus sailing on Wednesday, April 10, with 2,208 passengers and crew, the *Titanic* called at Cherbourg the same day and at Queenstown on Thursday, and on that day started across the Atlantic, expecting to arrive in New York on the following Wednesday morning. A particularly long run was made on Sunday. Those who had crossed the Atlantic before agreed that the *Titanic* was the most comfortable boat they had ever traveled on, and that the trip had been in every way delightful.

In his carefully written "Loss of the Steamship *Titanic*" (Boston, 1912), Lawrence Beesley, one of the survivors, says:

"Perhaps the real history of the disaster should commence with the afternoon of Sunday, when Marconigrams were received by

the *Titanic* from the ships ahead of her, warning her of the existence of icebergs. In connection with this must be taken the marked fall of temperature observed by everyone, in the afternoon and evening of this day, as well as the very low temperature of the water.

Warned of icebergs.

"I remember with deep feeling the effect this information had on us when it first became generally known on board the *Carpathia*. Rumors of it went round on Wednesday morning, grew to definite statements in the afternoon, and were confirmed when one of the *Titanic* officers admitted the truth of it, in reply to a direct question. I shall never forget the overwhelming sense of hopelessness that came over some of us as we obtained definite knowledge of the warning messages. It was not then the unavoidable accident we had hitherto supposed; the sudden plunging into a region crowded with icebergs which no seaman, however skilled a navigator he might be, could have avoided! The beautiful *Titanic* wounded too deeply to recover, the cries of the drowning still ringing in our ears, and the thousands of homes that mourned all these calamities—none of these things need ever have been!"

The story, briefly told, is this: A little before midnight on April 14th the *Titanic,* going at full speed through a region of ice, collided with an iceberg in latitude 41° 46′ North, and longitude 50° 14′ West—1,600 miles due east

of New York. An expert nautical engineer explains the accident as follows: "A massive, projecting, under-water shelf of the iceberg, with which she collided, tore open several compartments of the *Titanic*. The rent extended from near the bow to amidships, and was similar to what would have happened had an immense can-opener gouged her side." The energy of the blow was 1,100,000 foot tons. It is well to remember that the plates were less than an inch thick.

It was not until about an hour after the accident that the wireless call for help was sent to Cape Race and the lifeboats began to be lowered. The ship sank, bow first, at 2:20 o'clock in the morning. The survivors were picked up in the dawn by the *Carpathia,* which had responded to the wireless call for help. Subsequently, the White Star Line chartered two vessels—the *Mackay-Bennett* and the *Minia*—to search for bodies. These ships found the remains of 200 persons and took them to Halifax. Among the bodies found were those of Col. John Jacob Astor, Isidor Straus, and Charles M. Hays. The financial loss of the vessel exceeded $15,000,000.

The ship sinks.

When the *Carpathia* arrived in New York, on April 18th, it found the great city in a hysteria of grief and anxiety. Preparations had been made to care for the dead and dying and wounded, for the sensational reports had it

that she was a "death-ship," on which many of the survivors had gone mad from grief and exposure.

But this was not the case. The survivors had gone through the terrible ordeal with remarkable fortitude; and although they landed without clothing and money and under emotional excitement, in the main they were in a wonderful state of health, and disembarked in solemn and impressive outward calmness and self-control.

Self-control of survivors.

Who could have imagined that the splendid *Titanic* was destined to such a fate? Least of all those passengers sleeping quietly in their berths, or enjoying the various pleasures the ship afforded. Even after the accident, no one imagined that within a couple of hours the floating palace would be no more, and that all the passengers would be shipwrecked! What a rapid change! What a violent shock! One moment within a brilliantly lighted and deliciously warm ship, surrounded by all conceivable luxuries—in the next helplessly cast upon the broad ocean in the dark and cold night, without food or raiment, separated from relatives and friends, with the horror of perishing and the greater horror of watching others struggle in the waves. We can almost live through this scene by means of Mr. Beesley's vivid pen, which so graphically describes the actual sinking of the vessel. The lifeboat in which he was fortunate enough to

have a place had been afloat for an hour and a half when the *Titanic's* tragic end came:

"The oarsmen lay on their oars, and all in the lifeboat were motionless as we watched her in absolute silence—save some who would not look, and buried their heads on each other's shoulders. The lights still shone with the same brilliance, but not so many of them; many were now below the surface. I have often wondered since whether they continued to light up the cabins when the portholes were under water; they may have done so.

"And then, as we gazed awe-struck, she tilted slowly up, revolving apparently about a centre of gravity just astern of amidships, until she attained a vertically upright position; and there she remained—motionless! As she swung up, her lights, which had shone without a flicker all night, went out suddenly, came on again for a single flash, then went out altogether. And as they did so, there came a noise which many people, wrongly, I think, have described as an explosion; it has always seemed to me that it was nothing but the engines and machinery coming loose from their bolts and bearings, and falling through the compartments, smashing everything in their way. It was partly a roar, partly a groan, partly a rattle, and partly a smash, and it was not a sudden roar as an explosion would be; it went on successively for some seconds, possibly fifteen to twenty, as the heavy machinery

The ship stood vertically upright just before sinking.

dropped down to the bottom (now the bows) of the ship; I suppose it fell through the end and sank first before the ship. But it was a noise no one had heard before, and no one wishes to hear again; it was stupefying, stupendous, as it came to us along the water. It was as if all the heavy things one could think of had been thrown downstairs from the top of a house, smashing each other and the stairs and everything in the way.

"When the noise was over the *Titanic* was still upright like a column; we could see her now only as the stern and some 150 feet of her stood outlined against the star-specked sky, looming black in the darkness, and in this position she continued for some minutes—I think as much as five minutes, but it may have been less. Then, first sinking back a little at the stern, I thought, she slid slowly forwards through the water and dived slantingly down; the sea closed over her and we had seen the last of the beautiful ship on which we had embarked four days before at Southampton.

The last of the *Titanic*.

"And in place of the ship on which all our interest had been concentrated for so long, and towards which we looked most of the time because it was still the only object on the sea which was a fixed point to us—in place of the *Titanic,* we had the level sea now, stretching in an unbroken expanse to the horizon; heaving gently as just before, with no indication on the surface that the waves had just closed

over the most wonderful vessel ever built by man's hand; the stars looked down just the same, and the air was just as bitterly cold."

The account of the disaster as told by Miss Young.

Another very graphic account was written by Miss Marie G. Young of Washington, in the library of the *Carpathia.*

"In our midst are heart-broken wives mourning for husbands who forced them into lifeboats; here also are motherless and fatherless babies, for whom busy fingers are eagerly fashioning garments cut from clothing furnished by generous women of the *Carpathia.* Mothers and sisters are crying for lost sons and brothers. Men are here, too, with frozen, bandaged feet and hands. From these tragic surroundings, while words of despair, of cheer, of hope, and of solace pass and repass, I send my recollections of a night of horror that language can never adequately describe.

"The steamship *Titanic* was moving swiftly over a quiet sea under a sky brilliant with stars. I had just switched off the light over my bed, when the ship struck with a grinding, wrenching force, followed by several violent bumps. My friend, Mrs. White, and I thought we had struck a small boat, and she urged me to go with her immediately to Deck A, where the promenade deck was situated.

"We put on our wrappers and fur coats, and went up from Deck C to Deck A, where a steward told the gathering passengers that we had grazed an iceberg, but the ship was

in no danger. Consequently, we lost valuable time, sitting in the corridors watching the young girls and men come in from the deck, carrying pieces of ice which had fallen on the deck (70 feet above the sea) when we struck. In this time we might have collected valuables, and dressed warmly for the undreamed-of exit into the icy night. The engines were letting off steam, all headway being stopped. Suddenly Captain Smith ran downstairs, calling out 'Put on your life-belts!' It seemed impossible we could really have understood his words, so full of tragic import, and spoken on such a gigantic 'unsinkable' boat as the *Titanic*.

"I ran down to our room, took a life-preserver from the rack on the ceiling, and finding the second one caught in the hinge, I took another from the top of the wardrobe. Then, catching up some money lying near and a sweater and extra coat, I ran to Deck A again, in time to hear the order given for all women to go to the boat deck.

"There was no hurry, no confusion, no crowding. The ship was so large the passengers had not gathered together.

"We heard that chivalrous and gallant command, 'Women first!' "Women first."

"One boat had already been lowered from the port side when we were lifted into Boat No. 8. The captain was beside us, and from a hamper nearby he threw a huge loaf of

bread into the boat. To a group of waiting seamen and stewards we heard the question put, 'Can you row?'

"No sailor had any station assigned him for any boat, and this 'scratch' crew had known no boat drills.

"Eagerly four men entered our boat as oarsmen, and with only twenty-two souls aboard we were lowered away from the height of eighty feet into the sea. Our stern lowered at such a start, it seemed certain that we would ship water, but finally we slipped gently from the hawsers and rested on the ocean, whose calmness was our salvation.

The first boat lowered.

"Captain Smith called to us to pull for a green light seen in the distance, to unload passengers and return the boat at once. We left above us weeping wives who refused to leave their husbands, and young mothers who had come to place nurse and babies into a boat. They went below to save other children, but they were not seen again. Our boat was rowed a short distance, then rested, as opinions were divided between following the captain's orders and staying nearby to pick up possible survivors.

"How we hoped and prayed that the *Titanic* would staunchly bear up with her waiting hundreds until succoring ships had completed the work of rescue. Finally we started in pursuit of the low-lying distant light pointed out, but again and again our hor-

rified eyes were held by the lighted sinking steamer.

"Slowly deck after deck sunk out of sight, the water covering the bow port-holes, and, as she crouched lower, she seemed like a gigantic kneeling animal.

"It was more like a nightmare than reality to watch the death struggle of the ship whose warm and superlative luxury had so recently enfolded us. What bitter regret one felt at the thought of the millions spent in palm-gardens, Turkish baths, squash court, tapestried walls and inlaid woods, when the great essential of sufficient lifeboats was lacking.

Sufficient lifeboats lacking.

"All aboard her had such faith in her staunchness that they waited by preference aboard her after her deathblow, believing her to be unsinkable. Her wireless call rent the sky, rockets blazed, illuminating the huge iceberg on the starboard side, and her cannon boomed again and again for succor.

"The incredible sound of music reached us, and with disappearing lights, the roar of explosions, the wails of 1,600 agonizing souls, was mingled the heroic music played by what trembling hands God only knows.

"Horror and grief stunned us. How could we witness it and live? One seaman said over and over again, 'I'd rather go back and drown with them than save myself.'

"Yet we were in the hands of men who had lighted their cigarettes with calm indifference

before we left the steamer's deck. A steward near me, trying to row, said, 'I never held an oar before.' No officer was at our helm. We depended on girls to steer us, and all night the women rowed, standing, facing the men, so four hands were throwing all bodily strength into each pull of the oars.

"Often the lantern was lifted and waved. It burned badly, and we lost time trimming it. The sea stretched so smoothly before us that the stars were reflected. Twinkling about us were the lights of other *Titanic* boats. Those that were launched without lanterns burned rope and hats as signals. Slowly dawn came.

The dawn comes.

"Never had our eyes watched so eagerly for the creeping light that turned from black to gray, then flushed to pink on low-lying clouds. Then what a joyous cry went up! Far away from the elusive light we had vainly followed, shone a light too high to be anything but a mast light. What salvation lay in its existence, could we but reach it or call it to us!

"Soon it showed deck lights as it swung its side towards us, and from the fear of death awaiting us, our hearts surged to the belief that help, relief, and life itself reached out glad, welcoming hands.

" 'Courage now,' we cried, as the sea grew rough, as the wind rose with the approaching dawn.

"How desirable life looked! Freezing hands labored at the oars, and the first gleams

of the sun displayed a horizon with fifteen icebergs white against it. Sea gulls flew over our boat, returning to hover over the crew of straining women and men at the oars.

"As far as eye could see were small white boats struggling towards the rescuers, called by the miracle of the wireless message. Boat after boat gathered close to that waiting ship. Would such joy ever be ours, to become one of them, and feel a line of safety thrown to hold us to her side?

"We saw her black hull, the swinging rope ladders and men waiting on her decks. Whirling ropes flew towards us, oars were shipped, and just as safety seemed certain we crashed against the hull of the *Carpathia* in the wild wash of the roughening sea.

"A voice called 'Any children aboard?'

"Up went a shout of 'No!'

"Secured at bow and stern, a 'bo's'n's seat' was lowered, looking like a stout wooden swing. It worked on a pulley, and many hands held it. The thought of being seated in it was terrifying, as it swayed dizzily between sky and sea; but strength and assurance of safety rang in the voices above.

"Life preservers were discarded, and the passenger nearest the bow was pulled upward in a series of vigorous leaps. Outstretched arms secured each one in turn, and the deck of the good ship *Carpathia* was a haven of safety."

The *Carpathia* receiving the saved passengers.

The investigation by the committee appointed by the United States Senate.

On the day after the arrival of the *Carpathia* (April 18), the American investigation into the causes of the wreck began under a special committee appointed by the United States Senate, of which Senator Smith of Michigan was chairman. Senator Smith took the chief part in obtaining testimony from the survivors of the *Titanic,* and officers and passengers of other vessels that were in the vicinity of the wreck; and the first important testimony was that of Mr. J. Bruce Ismay, chairman of the Board of Directors of the International Mercantile Marine Company, which owns the White Star Line.

The main facts were that the *Titanic,* though forewarned, was dashing at full speed through a region of icebergs; the ship was not properly provided with lifeboat provision (one in three only could be saved); the crew was too small and insufficiently trained; the wireless telegraph service was inadequate, and provided with but one operator; the bulkhead doors and general electric equipment were not tested thoroughly before starting; lack of proper glasses for the lookout; and the belief of the officers, crew, and passengers in the unsinkability of the ship. This is all covered, however, in Admiral Chadwick's criticism in the *Evening Post:* "The *Titanic* was lost by unwise navigation, by running at full speed, though so amply forewarned, into the dangerous situation, which might easily have been

avoided. This is the fundamental, sad, and one important fact. It accounts for everything."

It is, however, of far more interest to the general public to discover what precautions should be taken to avert a similar disaster, than to try to fasten the blame upon any individual, or company, or board of trade. The blame may not be unfairly laid largely upon the traveling public itself that has demanded ever-increasing speed and all the luxuries and elegancies of modern life on an ocean steamer. These have naturally crowded out the appliances for safety and provisions for saving life.

New legislation proposed for ocean travel.

Senator Smith proposed, after the inquiry had established these facts, new legislation for ocean passengers. He would have ocean liners equipped with double bottoms and fitted out with modern lifeboats, fully equipped and supplied with food, sufficient in number to take care of every soul on board; searchlights, binoculars for the men on watch, who should have shorter hours; regular lifeboat drills with permanent crew stations; constant day and night wireless service with adequate remuneration for the operators; a warning signal to the passengers of an accident; instructions given to passengers concerning lifebelts and the proper entering into lifeboats; regulation as to speed when the steamer is proceeding through fog or icebergs; and rules

that steamers should take the summer route in the iceberg season.

Before the American investigation was finished, Mr. Ismay announced that a number of reforms, including the carrying of sufficient lifeboats, would be instituted on the ships of the White Star Line, and on May 1st the Government Steamship Inspection Service changed the regulations regarding the number of lifeboats, regulating this "by the number of passengers, officers, and crew licensed to be carried," instead of by tonnage. Various steamship lines conferred with the United States Hydrographic Office, and all captains were ordered to take the new southern route, although this adds two hundred miles to the westward course.

The British Commission of Inquiry begins investigation.

On May 2d the British Commission of Inquiry, under the direction of the Board of Trade, began its investigations, which were conducted by Lord Mersey.

Again let us quote from Mr. Beesley, who wrote his interesting book largely for the purpose of seeing that the proper reforms are carried out. He writes:

"The *Titanic's* two thousand odd passengers went aboard thinking that they were on an absolutely safe ship, and all the time there were many people—designers, builders, experts, government officials—who knew there were insufficient boats on board, that the *Titanic* had no right to go fast in iceberg regions,

and took no steps and enacted no laws to prevent their happening. Not that they omitted to do these things deliberately, but were lulled into a state of selfish inaction from which it needed such a tragedy as this to arouse them. It was a cruel necessity which demanded that a few should die to arouse many millions to a sense of their own insecurity, to the fact that for years the possibility of such a disaster has been imminent. Passengers have known none of these things, and while no good end would have been served by relating to them needless tales of danger on the high seas, one thing is certain—that, had they known them, many would not have traveled in such conditions, and thereby safeguards would soon have been forced on the builders, the companies, and the Government. But there were people who knew and did not fail to call attention to the dangers: in the House of Commons, the matter has been frequently brought up privately, and an American naval officer, Captain E. K. Roden, in an article that has since been widely reproduced, called attention to the defects of this very ship, the *Titanic*—taking her as an example of all other liners—and pointed out that she was not unsinkable, and had not proper boat accommodation." Regarding the *direct* responsibility of the disaster, he says: "Dealing first with the precautions for the safety of the ship, I suppose that the direct responsibility for the loss of the *Titanic* and

The direct responsibility for loss of *Titanic*.

so many lives must be laid on her captain. He was responsible for setting the course, day by day and hour by hour, for the speed she was traveling; and he alone would have the power to decide whether or not speed must be slackened with icebergs ahead. No officer would have any right to interfere in the navigation, although they would no doubt be consulted. Nor would any official connected with the management of the line—Mr. Ismay, for example—be allowed to direct the captain in these matters; and there is no evidence that he ever tried to do so. The very fact that the captain of a ship has such absolute authority increases his responsibility enormously." Of the *indirect* responsibility, he says:

The indirect responsibility for loss of *Titanic*.

"In the first place, disabusing our minds again of the knowledge that the *Titanic* struck an iceberg and sank, let us estimate the probabilities of such a thing happening. An iceberg is small and occupies little room by comparison with the broad ocean on which it floats; and the chances of another small object like a ship colliding with it and being sunk are very small; the chances are, as a matter of fact, one in a million. This is not a figure of speech; that is the actual risk for total loss by collision with an iceberg as accepted by insurance companies. The one-in-a-million accident was what sunk the *Titanic*.

"Even so, had Captain Smith been alone in taking the risk he would have had to bear all

the blame for the resulting disaster. But it seems he is not alone; the same risk has been taken over and over again by fast mail-passenger liners in fog and in iceberg regions. Their captains have taken the long—very long—chance many times and won every time; he took it as he had done many times before, and lost. Of course, the chances that night of striking an iceberg were much greater than one in a million; they had been enormously increased by the extreme southerly position of icebergs and field ice, and by the unusual number of the former. Thinking over the scene that met our eyes from the deck of the *Carpathia* after we boarded her—the great number of icebergs wherever the eye could reach—the chances of *not* hitting one in the darkness of the night seemed small. Indeed, the more one thinks about the *Carpathia* coming at full speed through all those icebergs in the darkness, the more inexplicable does it seem.

The chances taken by all fast mail-passenger liners.

"So that it is the custom that is at fault and not one particular captain. Custom is established largely by demand, and supply too is the answer to demand. What the public demanded the White Star Line supplied, and so both the public and the line are concerned with the question of indirect responsibility.

"The public has demanded, more and more every year, greater speed as well as greater comfort, and by ceasing to patronize the low-

speed boats, has gradually forced the pace to what it is at present. Not that speed itself is a dangerous thing—it is sometimes much safer to go quickly than slowly—but that, given the facilities for speed, and the stimulus exerted by the constant public demand for it, occasions arise when the judgment of those in command of a ship becomes swayed—largely unconsciously, no doubt—in favor of taking risks which the smaller liners would never take."

The heroism of the passengers.

The passengers as a rule showed wonderful heroism and calmness, both in individual cases and as a whole; and in summing up the collective behavior of the crowd, the qualities that struck him were the entire absence of fear or alarm on the part of the passengers; quietness and self-control, the two qualities most expressed; that the sense of danger came to every one very slowly; that there was a curious sense of the whole scene being but a dream; that every one surveyed the actions of others dispassionately; the general atmosphere of peace—clear sky, calm sea, and not a breath of wind—to which all on board responded unconsciously; and the general obedience and respect for authority of every one, each one endeavoring to do his part to bring about the best result for all on board, irrespective of his own safety; all of which behavior proved that heroism is an unconscious quality of the race, and nobility of character far less uncommon than is usually supposed.

[A Congressional inquiry into the causes of the *Titanic* disaster begun by Senators Smith and Newlands in New York. Yuan Shih-kai delivers his first Presidential message at the opening of the Chinese Advisory Council. Mutiny among Moorish soldiers at Fez. *Carpathia* arrives in New York with 495 passengers and 210 crew of the wrecked *Titanic*. Memorial services for those who lost their lives on the *Titanic* held in St. Paul's Cathedral and in other churches in the British Empire and United States. Announcement that steamers of the International Mercantile Marine will carry sufficient lifeboats and rafts for passengers and crew. Bazaar section of Damascus, Syria, destroyed by fire. British commission under Lord Mersey begins investigation of wreck of *Titanic*. Death of Frederick VIII., King of Denmark, and accession of his son, Christian X. Cable ship *Mackay-Bennett* brings 190 bodies picked up from the *Titanic* wreck into Halifax. Italian battleship, *Re Umberto,* runs on rocks off Tripoli and sinks. Over 15,000 persons participate in woman suffrage parade in New York City, on May 4th. Cable ship *Minia* carried fifteen more bodies from *Titanic* into Halifax. Deaths of Major-General Frederick Dent Grant; Clara Barton, founder of the Red Cross Society, and Col. John Jacob Astor, W. T. Stead, and Isidor Straus (*Titanic*).]

Death of Frederick VIII., King of Denmark.

AT THE SOUTH POLE

(A.D. 1912)

BY ONE OF THE PARTY

"THE fourteen of us who have come into the Thames include all the South Pole shore party except Captain Amundsen, who is now busy in Buenos Aires writing the book of his experiences, and he will not come to Europe until August. Toward the close of the year he proposes to rejoin the *Fram* at Buenos Aires, and make an attempt via Cape Horn to reach the North Pole. Seven or eight of us intend to rejoin him on that expedition. There will only be fourteen in the new trip, instead of the twenty-one who sailed south, but in attempting the North Pole there is no need to furnish a landing party.

"Even apart from the achievement of reaching the South Pole, our voyage has been a great success, and in the conditions under which we made it there was no risk. None of us have at any time had any feeling of having been in trouble.

"There have been toil and dangers, but the surmounting of these has been a question of organization, and that was the work of Captain Amundsen. He is a splendid leader, su-

Captain Amundsen a fearless leader.

preme in organization, and the essential in arctic or antarctic travel is to think out the difficulties before they arise. When that is thoroughly done everything goes smoothly and the difficulties resolve themselves into a test of endurance.

"The chief of the dangers we encountered were the crevasses in the ice. Of these I sometimes dream. One day Captain Johannsen was driving his sleigh, and the foremost of his dogs dropped into a crevasse and had to be abandoned. Usually it was possible to make a bridge with our skis and pull the dogs back to safety by their harness.

Danger from ice crevasses.

"One of the closest shaves experienced was by the Southern party. On that occasion the dogs got safely over a crevasse and continued pulling, but the sleigh fell in. One of the party had to climb down to the sleigh, unpack everything that it contained, and arrange for its contents to be pulled up piece by piece, followed by the sleigh itself. That was a difficult bit of work, for the snow and ice at the edge of a crevasse are often only a few inches thick, and liable at any moment to give way when weight is put upon them.

"Our mean temperature for the time we were in the antarctic regions constitutes a record. The figure was 60 degrees Centigrade below freezing point, the lowest being 77 degrees. A good idea of the intensity of the cold may be obtained from the fact that on one of

the sleighing expeditions the brandy froze in the bottle and was served out in lumps. It did not taste much like brandy then, but it burned our throats as we sucked it.

"Several of the members got more or less frostbitten. You are bound to suffer in this way in polar exploration, but it does not matter much if it is only on your hands or face. The trouble is when it attacks you in the feet. It is the same sort of feeling as burning. Then the pain disappears, and you know that you are frostbitten.

"In the spring of 1911 Captain Amundsen made too early a start for the Southern expedition, and he had to return, because three of the party had their feet frostbitten. All the time we were without a doctor, but we needed none, for Captain Amundsen had had two years of medical training.

"Despite the cold the weather was extremely favorable. We had expected heavy gales, but, as a matter of fact, the wind was no heavier than you meet with elsewhere.

Animal life non-existent.

"Animal life, except on the coast, was non-existent. On the shores of the Bay of Whales, where we had our hut, life was abundant. The bay is rightly named, for whales were extraordinarily common, and there were crowds, too, of seals, penguins, and gulls. We sent back a collection with the *Fram* the first time she left us, and were able to supplement it when we returned this time. The animals

were amazingly tame, and the seals and penguins frequently walked right up to the doors of our hut. We obtained cinematograph pictures of them, and they will be shown by Captain Amundsen when he lectures on the voyage.

"Thanks to the wealth of animal life in the Bay of Whales we were never short of fresh food. Lest we should not find this source of supply, we had taken with us between twenty and thirty tons of dried fish for the dogs, and large quantities of dried pemmican that proved very useful for them on the way out. It was particularly on their account that we welcomed the supply of fresh meat. For ourselves we found the penguins and gulls were excellent as a change from tinned meat. They taste very much like partridge, and all the time we were at the hut there was not a single day that fresh meat did not figure at least once on our bill of fare. It entirely saved us from scurvy.

"Food proved no difficulty on our expedition. We have cached in the antarctic regions as much food as will last for three years. We left our hut in complete order, ready for occupation. There is food in it. The sleeping bags are ready for use. The cooking stove is in perfect order, and beside it lies a box of matches. A thousand yards from the hut is a special cache of provisions marked with a large flagpole, so that any one can find it.

Food cached.

"The Southern expedition was well equipped," the speaker added. "There were four sleighs, each about eleven feet long, with span runners, and weighing fifty-five pounds. Each sleigh carried four provision cases, one bearing also Captain Amundsen's private baggage, and the remaining three the tent, cooking gear, sleeping bags, three compasses, 198 pounds of petroleum, and various apparatus. Thirteen dogs were attached to each sleigh, the weight amounting to between 850 and 900 pounds. To ease the dogs two days' rest was taken at each depot. Between the 84th and 86th degrees a chain of ice mountains had to be negotiated. Two tremendous peaks about 15,000 feet high were named Don Pedro Christophersen and Frithjof Nansen.

The dogs killed for food.

"The weather became very severe, and the party were obliged to kill and eat several of their dogs. For some days the party traveled on a huge glacier, El Diablo, after which a tramp had to be made in the teeth of a blinding storm.

"Conditions then improved, and on Dec. 14th a hole was dug at the pole, and with all hands on the staff the Norwegian flag was raised. A tent was erected over the spot, and clothes, food, and other articles which it is hoped may be of use to the next visitor were placed inside. The site was named Pol Heim. After three days of observation the return journey was begun.

"The party arrived back at the hut early in the morning of the long Summer day. They had been expected daily, but several of the party were out when they arrived. The success of the expedition was celebrated by a special dinner.

New lands explored.

"Plenty of new land has been explored by the southern and the eastern parties. We found that the range discovered by Sir Ernest Shackleton runs all across the country. Both parties made geological collections as far as was possible, and Captain Amundsen will have a good deal that is new to report of King Edward VII. Land, which was discovered by Captain Scott. The eastern expedition in King Edward VII. Land was conducted by Lieutenant Prestrud, who had two companions, and they named one of the peaks after Captain Scott. It is easy to understand why Captain Scott could not explore the country, for it is bordered by ice forty feet high, and is quite unapproachable by a ship. The presence of iron was detected by the compass, but no traces were found either of coal or gold. Naturally, it was not possible to make anything approaching to a complete study of the district, for all the time it was necessary to travel quickly, as can be imagined when it is remembered that Captain Amundsen did his return journey from the Pole to the hut without a rest, traveling continuously from Dec. 17th to Jan. 26th. In collecting specimens,

the work was in many ways like Alpine climbing, for we often had to descend by ropes on to the face of the cliffs, to get at the land where it was not covered by snow or ice.

"Our most exciting experience was the sighting of the British and the Japanese expeditions. In 1911 we had a most cordial meeting with the *Terra Nova*. We had seen nothing for six months, and naturally were excited at meeting her. We were with her people altogether about twelve hours. We had finished building our hut the day before, and they were the first guests we received. They came to us for breakfast, and we paid a return visit to them for luncheon.

Meeting the *Terra Nova*.

"It was just at the time that the southern expedition had returned toward the end of January. The ice in the bay was still tight, but then a fortunate gale broke it up and drove both the *Tainan Maru* and the *Fram* out to sea. That gale was a very good thing for us, for instead of having to transport our things ten miles, the *Fram* was able to come back within a couple of miles of the hut. When we left a day or two later the tents were still there.

"Sir Ernest Shackleton has put forward the view that the bay ice is changing. Between 1900 and 1901 he reports a large piece was broken off. During our two years' stay there was no change in it.

"Much of the success of the expedition de-

pended on the dogs, which behaved splendidly. From the time of the start we made them our pets, and each member of the shore party, including Captain Amundsen, was responsible for one of the teams, each man invariably feeding his own dogs. This is an important point, as a great deal depends on the dogs becoming fond of their drivers. While Captain Scott was able to get more work out of his ponies as long as they were on firm ice, it was the opinion of our expedition that dogs were superior for the varying conditions."

[Theodore Roosevelt announces his conversion to the cause of woman's suffrage. The Secretary of Commerce and Labor approves the new regulations requiring lifeboat accommodations for all persons on ocean liners. Governor Woodrow Wilson of New Jersey is nominated for President on the 46th ballot in the Democratic National Convention in Baltimore. José Ramirez, a former cabinet minister, is assassinated at San Juan del Sur, Nicaragua. Cuban insurgent leader, General Evaristo Estenoy, is killed in an engagement near Santiago. London dock strike is ended, the workmen's ballot against its continuing. Dock on Grand Island, Niagara River, collapses, drowning two hundred people. Turks and Arabs repulsed with heavy losses at Tripoli. Chief Willis L. Moore of the United States Weather Bureau, outlines a plan for an

Woodrow Wilson nominated by Democratic National Convention.

international weather and storm bureau. The German battleship squadron visits New York. The German Emperor and Czar of Russia meet at Baltic Port, Russia. Seven persons die of bubonic plague in Porto Rico, and United States army surgeons are sent there to check the disease. Mrs. Emmeline Pankhurst and Mrs. Pethick Lawrence, the British suffragettes, are released from prison after serving a month of their nine months' sentence. A successful woman-suffrage parade is held in Baltimore. Tornado in Regina, capital of Saskatchewan Province, Canada, destroys much property (fifty lives lost). Harriet Quinby, the woman aviator, is killed at the Boston aviation meet with her passenger, W. A. P. Willard. The British Government arranges for the construction of five high-power wireless stations to cost $3,000,000, for a complete round-the-world service. Mexican revolutionists, under General Orozco, are defeated in a battle south of Chihuahua (1,700 dead, 2,900 wounded). British Board of Trade's inquiry into the cause of the *Titanic* wreck ended. Mexican Federal troops take possession of Chihuahua. The Norwegian Storthing passes the $5,000,000 naval budget. Trial of the Camorrist leaders at Viterbo, Italy, is ended after seventeen months; eight of the men are sentenced to thirty years' solitary confinement. General Garibaldi resigns his command of the Mexican Federal volunteers.

General Orozco defeated.

HOW THE CARBONARIA SAVED THE PORTUGUESE REPUBLIC

(A.D. 1912)

FRANCIS McCULLAGH

I CROSSED the international bridge over the Minho at Tuy a few hours before Captain Victor Sepulveda and his two hundred Royalists made their futile attack on Valença, and I remained in the north of Portugal until the failure of the raiders was beyond question. As I naturally took a keen interest in what was going on around me, and had been studying the Portuguese question for years, my views with regard to the recent Royalist raid may, therefore, be of some interest.

Captain Couceiro has been ridiculed because his attempt failed miserably, but, until facts proved their inadequacy, the Royalist plans did not seem so very fantastic. The theory was this:

The Royalist plans.

The Portuguese army and the peasantry of the north are a pair of powder-barrels. A single spark will explode both of them and blow the Republic sky-high. A corporal's guard with a blue-and-white flag will be sufficient. Now, Captain Couceiro must have sent across the frontier, at different points, no less

than one thousand men. At least half of these were well-armed and had plenty of ammunition. The main body had even two mountain-guns and three machine-guns. If there were any truth in the very numerous and very circumstantial reports which Couceiro had received regarding the anxiety of ninety-nine per cent. of the Portuguese soldiers to surrender to him, this raid from Spain was as sure of success as was Napoleon's raid from Elba. Moreover, it seemed certain that the civilians would rise as one man, seize the arsenals, and constitute themselves into a formidable army. Such, at least, was the impression one gathered from the Royalist emissaries who came almost daily to Verin, Tuy, Orense, and Mondariz from the interior of Portugal, when the present writer lived in those places last year. The priests in the north were especially emphatic on the subject of a general insurrection. They themselves would lead their flocks. The most cautious calculation was that at least fifty thousand men would rise in the north, and that at least half the troops in garrison there would join the *insurrectos.* Moreover, it seemed, on July 1st, to be as certain as anything can be that there would be a *coup d'état* in Lisbon itself. It failed because, at the last moment, the Government made sweeping changes among the officers, transferred some and retired others. Moreover, the military leaders of the Lisbon plot

The Government makes sweeping changes.

began quarrelling among themselves and with Couceiro. The result is that, for one month now, fresh ramifications of this great military plot are being discovered almost daily. It has become clear that if all the people concerned in this plot had, on the day fixed for the rising, made a long pull, a strong pull, and a pull all together, they might have pulled down the Republic.

Braga, the ultra-Catholic and ultra-Royalist capital of Entre Douro e Minho, and an important strategic point at which all the roads in that province converge, seems to have been a hotbed of conspiracy; and if Couceiro had succeeded in taking Chaves, he would undoubtedly have been joined by nearly all the Braga garrison as well as by a large number of civilians from the town and the surrounding country. This is clearly shown by the number of arrests that have since taken place in Braga. At first two majors, three lieutenants, one cadet, and five sergeants were taken into custody. On July 17th, three officers and several sergeants were arrested; and on the 25th a major of engineers and an inspector of fortifications were sent to keep them company. The number of political prisoners became so great that the former residence of the Jesuits in Saint Barnabé Street was converted into a jail, and quickly filled with suspects. Among those suspects were some ladies, and many priests.

Great number of political prisoners.

Early in July a plot was discovered in the Loios barracks, and three sergeants and one soldier were arrested. One of the sergeants had had charge of the magazine, from which many cartridges were missing; but the authorities refused to give any information, and it is possible that many more arrests have since been made. It was stated in the Republican papers that the Loios plot had ramifications in other companies of the Republican Guards, and that the military conspirators were in the habit of meeting civilian *confrères* at a certain house.

At Evora there was a serious plot which extended to Borba and to Mora, where the arrest of a sergeant of the Republican Guard led to the discovery that a good deal of military ball cartridge had been handed over to the civilian conspirators by their allies in the army. In connection with the Evora plot Major Montez, an officer on active service, was arrested.

Monarchist plots.

On July 18th, a monarchist plot was discovered at Torres Vedras. The local Royalists had intended to seize that town, make it their headquarters, and then march on Leiria.

At Vianna do Castello a serious conspiracy was discovered on July 25th, and thirty arrests were made. The military leaders of the conspiracy, Captain Alvaro Pimenta and Captain Martinho Cerqueira had, however, escaped. There was another plot at Beja, and still an-

other at Bemfica. From Azoia, on July 9th, a band of armed conspirators marched on Porto de Moz.

The conspirators march on Porto de Moz.

I refer to this long, though incomplete, list of monarchical conspiracies in order to show that Couceiro was not so absolutely without friends in the Portuguese army as has been represented, and that his enterprise was not, therefore, so mad as some people have described it. In fact it seemed to have a much better chance of success than the successful revolution of October 4th. On that occasion four hundred men with everything against them and only a non-commissioned naval officer at their head overcame several thousands with everything in their favor and scores of excellent officers to lead them. Couceiro had a thousand men with artillery, and for the first few days the Republican troops which confronted him were always in the minority, and always without artillery. At Chaves he had 600 men, and the Republicans had only 170.

He was mistaken in thinking that the peasantry would join him as soon as he crossed the border, but a military commander (and much more an adventurous raider) must take some risks. And if Chaves had fallen, Couceiro would, undoubtedly, have got many recruits. As a matter of fact, there was a popular rising at Cabeceiras de Basto and in half a dozen other places, but the peasants who

seized those villages were subsequently unable to join forces with Couceiro's column.

Why did the Royalist movement fail?

"How was it, then," the reader will ask, "that the Royalist movement failed so utterly?"

Many causes contributed to that failure, but I have only space to deal with one cause here, and that is the action of the Carbonarios. It may safely be said, indeed, that the Carbonarios killed the counter-revolution. They prevented the cutting of the railways and of the telegraph wires, as well as the blowing up of the bridges. They made inter-communication between the various bodies of *insurrectos* impossible, and consequently prevented that coordination of Royalist outbreaks which would seriously have menaced the Republic. They paralyzed the whole machinery of the internal conspiracy (which was infinitely more important, of course, than the allied Galician conspiracy) by locking up the indispensable man in each district, just at the moment when the success of the local plot depended on his being at large.

The Republican Government undoubtedly employed the Carbonarios in the service of the State. This secret organization did the work of the police; and it had the double advantage of discharging its work with fanaticism and disinterestedness, and at the same time of exercising clandestinely its terrible vigilance. Senhor Carlos Malheiro Dias men-

tions a report that every suspected monarchist, every military leader who might possibly do the Republic harm, is continuously watched by "one of these obscure and fanatical men," one of the Carbonarios, who will take care that in case of a Royalist insurrection, his prey will never reach the insurgent camp. This story sounds sensational, but the vast number of arrests made by Carbonarios on the day Couceiro crossed the frontier seems to lend color to it.

Let us take one case alone, that of Lieutenant Soares, and let us tell it in the formal, matter-of-fact language of Reuter's Lisbon correspondent:

Case of Lieutenant Soares.

"Second-Lieutenant Manuel Albert Soares of the Portuguese Navy was murdered in a hotel here this afternoon. This officer had been arrested on a charge of complicity in the Algarve plot, but had been found not guilty. He was, however, watched by members of the Carbonaria, the secret society which played a prominent part in the Republican Revolution. Seeing him passing through Rocio Square, some Carbonarios followed him to a hotel in which he sought refuge. Lieutenant Soares made as if to draw a weapon, but a Carbonario was quicker than he, and fired, hitting him four times, with a revolver. The lieutenant was conveyed to hospital but died on his way there."

There can be no doubt that the Carbonarios

helped the Republic enormously by spying on the monarchist conspirators in Spain, and that they ran to earth in 1911 the Royalist plotters of Coimbra, Figueira da Foz, and other places. In short, they defeated the Royalist plot of last year as they defeated the greater Royalist plot of this year. On these two plots the monarchists spent probably over half a million sterling. Thanks to the Carbonaria they spent it in vain.

This secret organization does not confine itself to detective work. Its members are also very successful as soldiers in the field. When the Oporto Royalists plotted last year to seize the battery of Serra do Pilar and the Palacio do Crystal, armed Carbonarios routed them single-handed. And Couceiro's fatal check at Chaves in July was largely due to the presence of civilian Carbonarios in the Republican fighting line. There were thirty of these terrible fanatics in Couceiro's own army.*

The fear of the Carbonarios.

The Carbonarios have been tremendously helped by their evil reputation. The simple-minded Catholic peasant of the north fears a Carbonario as he would fear the devil. In his opinion, the secret society adept combines an absolute contempt for death with a fiendish

* My authority for this statement is Senhor Abilio Magro who was himself a spy in Couceiro's "army," where he was well received owing to the fact that his brother is a priest, an exile, and a leader among the Royalist conspirators. See his *Revolução de Couceiro,* page 317. I do not mean, of course, that all the thirty accompanied Couceiro on his march.

cruelty and a superhuman cunning. Having been excommunicated by the Church he is, of course, sold to the devil, and enjoys diabolical assistance, so that it is madness for a plain, God-fearing man to contend with him. He carries so much dynamite about his person at all times that, if you strike him, you will perish as well as he in the resultant explosion, and there will not be a building left standing within a radius of half a mile. This feeling of dread the peasant lad carries into the army with him when he does military service, and the result is that one Carbonario sergeant is sometimes sufficient to cow a whole regiment. At Valença do Minho, the garrison would have surrendered in July last had not a Carbonario sergeant fired a shot at the enemy, who consequently fled hastily towards Spain. The soldiers, being thus left without anyone to whom they might surrender, remained staunch Republicans, and even took part in the pursuit. I suspect that many a Royalist regiment continued true to the Republic, owing to the Colonel's fear of being shot by some Carbonario in the ranks the instant he declared for King Manuel.

This Carbonaria mania is, of course, absurd. The Carbonario, as a matter of fact, is generally a debauched townsman with much less physical strength than the average mountaineer of Traz os Montes, but his lurid reputation makes the countryman tremble before

The lurid reputation attached to a Carbonario.

him. This belief that the bad, blasphemous, intoxicated man necessarily makes a good soldier is prevalent in all primitive communities, and was very common in mediæval Europe. The Janissaries of the Grand Turk probably owed their victories as much to their reputation for lewdness and ferocity as to their physical value as soldiers. To-day the Carbonarios are the Janissaries of the Portuguese Republic.

The Carbonarios the Janissaries of the Portuguese Republic.

Without troubling to get any permit either from the military or civil authorities, these secret society men searched private houses, shadowed officers, watched in barracks, and arrested so many suspects that finally the Government had to set at liberty most of these prisoners, and to issue an edict forbidding unauthorized persons to make arrests.

As Reuter's Lisbon correspondent put it:

"Bodies of civilians, which have been organized throughout the country for the defence of the Republic, are actively assisting the Government in the search for plotters."

"During the last few days," wired the Lisbon correspondent of *The Times* on July 16th, "civilians, mostly Carbonarios, have been visiting the private residences of various persons accused of being monarchists, and making a number of arbitrary arrests."

"To the Carbonarios," says the careful and impartial author of *Do Desafio á Debandada,* "have been conceded discretionary powers of

espionage, investigation, denunciation, and arrest. Lisbon is full of these amateur detectives, members of secret associations."

The protection of the railroads and telegraph lines.

The most important of the many services which the Carbonarios rendered to the Republic was the protection of the railways and telegraph lines. Couceiro had arranged completely to isolate the north for weeks by a wholesale cutting of railways, as well as of telegraph and telephone lines, also by the blowing up of railway and other bridges, and the blocking of high-roads with great masses of stone. There seemed no reason why this plan should not be carried out, for in large districts through which the railway passes there is not a solitary Republican. If it had succeeded, its success would have helped the Royalist cause, for a veil of silence would have suddenly been drawn over half of Portugal; and the inability of the Government to publish daily telegrams from Braga, Guimaraes, Bragança, and the other towns in the north, would make the people scent a disaster, and would consequently injure the prestige of the Republican Government. It may be remembered that the silence which the revolutionists imposed on monarchical Lisbon on October 4th, 1910, contributed powerfully to the overthrow of Dom Manuel.

When the Royalists set about making a revolution, they found, however, that their opponents were only too keenly alive to the im-

portance of the railway and telegraph lines. Damage was done to both in many places, but, thanks to the activity of the Carbonarios, it was always promptly repaired. In the province of Minho several bridges were blown up. Valença was for a time cut off from telegraphic communication with the south. The railway was damaged between Caminha and Barresellas, and at Amarante all the telegraph lines were cut; but the necessary repairs were executed so rapidly that, were it not for the newspapers, the general public would not have known that there had been any interruption. The road between Babugaes and Barresellas was blocked with pine trunks and huge boulders, but a number of men belonging to the "Grupo da Defeza" went in a motor from Vianna and cleared away these obstacles. The telegraph line between Braga and Espozende was cut, but only for a few hours. The mercilessness which the Carbonarios showed to peasants who cut telegraph wires intimidated the entire country, with the result that the whole vast plan for the isolation of the north collapsed in the most pitiable manner.

The use of motor cars by the Carbonarios.

The number of Carbonarios in the north is small, but, thanks to their large use of motor-cars, they practically multiplied their number by ten. The motor-car was a serious factor in Couceiro's defeat; and if there is another raid the Republicans will probably fol-

low it from aeroplanes, for the purchase of which they are now raising a national subscription. The Republican Government is also arranging with the Marconi Company for the establishment of wireless telegraphs throughout the country; and this will still further handicap invaders. Even now a raid into Portugal has much less chance of success than eighty years ago, when King Pedro IV. and his *sete mil bravos* (seven thousand braves) landed at Mindello. In a few years, perhaps in a few months, it will be quite impossible.

Wireless telegraph to be established.

How Carbonario clubs were able to hire so many automobiles as I saw puffing about the streets of Oporto and the roads of northern Portugal in July last is difficult to understand. The Government probably paid for all of them. It certainly notified every garage that its motors would be hired by the military authorities. Stray items in the newspapers give us an idea of the extent to which the country roads swarmed with Republican motor-cars. An Oporto telegram sent to the *Mundo* on July 11th tells how "an automobile running from Fafe to Cabeceiras in the service of the telegraph department ran to-day into another automobile coming to Oporto and filled with Carbonarios." And when Celorico de Basto and Cabeceiras revolted, the Carbonarios and the *Pro Patria* people were on the spot in a few hours, long before the Government troops.

And with the Government troops, in many instances, were civilian cyclists who helped to reconnoitre, carry messages, etc.

If, on October 4th, 1910, the Royalist civilians had given the monarchy half the support which the Carbonarios gave the Republic on the occasion of the two Royalist raids, Dom Manuel would probably be still in Lisbon. On the former occasion the Royalist Government and the Royalist officers did nothing. They were afraid they would be accused of tyranny if they took energetic measures. Last month, however, the Republican colonels lost no time in proclaiming a state of siege and issuing stringent regulations which nobody who cared for his life would venture to disobey.

State of siege proclaimed.

Before October 4th, 1910, much ammunition was brought into Lisbon in carts and automobiles, and even by the railway, without the Royalist authorities seeming to care. In the towns of the north last month the Republican authorities forbade any kind of vehicle to approach, lest it might contain arms or explosives, and forbade the country people to enter in groups. The shops were all closed, and the streets were patrolled by day and night by cavalry, infantry, and Carbonarios. Until October 4th, 1910, the Republican newspapers of Lisbon were in full swing, and could say practically whatever they liked. Even then the Republicans appealed to high heaven and

the liberal opinion of Europe against the tyranny to which their press was subjected. In July, 1912, they themselves showed scant mercy to the newspapers which ventured to differ from them. A decree in the *Official Gazette* declared that any journal which criticized the Government was liable to have its copies seized or to be suspended. As a result of this decree the *Dia,* the only monarchical paper which the Government had permitted to exist in the country, was suppressed. Its editor succeeded in escaping, and is probably at this moment in Paris or London.

The great point, however, is that civilian Republicans worked for the Republic in July, 1912, while civilian Monarchists did nothing for the Monarchy at the moment when it was toppling over, in October, 1910. Nobody interfered on that occasion, when railways and telegraph wires were being cut in all directions. Even the police looked another way.

"Portugal é uma monarchia sem monarchicos" ("Portugal is a monarchy without monarchists") said that keen observer, Dom Carlos, meaning that the people were sunk in inertia, that, with the exception of the limbs in contact with the electric current of republicanism, the whole organism of State was paralyzed. If anything wakes up the Portuguese Royalists, it will be the hardships which they have now to put up with, and which they richly deserve. Those hardships will teach

"Portugal is a monarchy without monarchists."

them the necessity of union and vigilance; and if ever the monarchy comes back, it should, out of gratitude, erect a statue to Affonso Costa.

This does not mean, however, that the Carbonarios are good in themselves. As a matter of fact, they are bad, quite as bad as the corrupt Rotatavist politicians who preceded them. No matter what kind of Government you establish in the Portugal of today, it is sure to be bad, owing to the fact that an enormous percentage of the people are illiterate, and take no intelligent interest in politics. John Stuart Mill has pointed out that whenever this is the case in a nation, power must fall into the hands of self-seeking men who use it largely for their own ends. The Portuguese Republic owes its origin and its preservation to popular revolutionary associations, but it must pay for that assistance by remaining the slave of these elements, most unsuited though they may be to direct the governmental action of a *régime* of liberty. It is at the mercy of a Jacobinism as harmful as it is inopportune. Carlos Malheiro Dias, the able Portuguese writer, who deals more impartially than any other with current Portuguese history, finds himself compelled to admit this in his latest book *Do Desafio á Debandada.* To "the perilous omnipotence" of the Carbonaria he attributes "the Provisional Government's errors of orientation and the unfor-

The illiteracy of the people.

tunate prolongation of the revolutionary period."

The present Government of Portugal is as little constitutional as the Government of the Young Turks. The former is dominated by the Carbonarios as the latter was dominated by the Committee. And as the Young Turks lost their reputation by confining themselves to the narrow and intolerant programme of the Committee, so the Young Portuguese Republic has discredited itself by adopting the narrow and intolerant programme of the Carbonarios.

The Government dominated by the Carbonarios.

"Time, the example of a respected administration, the promulgation of wise and just laws, a *régime* of indulgent fascination, would have done more to consolidate the Republic than the terrorist menaces of the Carbonarios, the Jacobin intolerance of the revolutionaries, the despotism which has crushed for the last six months an inorganic political society, the absence of liberty which tarnishes this prologue of a paradoxical democracy and, above all, the demagogic tyranny of a minority, exalted with arrogance, which pretends to claim as exclusively its own a country which belongs to all Portuguese."

These are the words of the earnest and patriotic (if somewhat long-winded) Republican writer whom I have already quoted. I could supplement them, if I had space, with the testimony of many other Republicans, two

of the most eminent of whom quitted public life last year by way of protest against the mob law which prevailed, and especially against the manner in which the Government permitted gangs of roughs to suppress all the Opposition papers.

Even under Dom Manuel the Portuguese people were not ruled by such a narrow clique as that which governs them now. That sovereign's Premiers made, if anything, too much allowance for Republican and anti-clerical points of view. It is not generally realized that it was the last Prime Minister of the Monarchy who began the anti-clerical campaign in Portugal by the closing of several Jesuit houses in Lisbon. In his anxiety to appear as liberal and as broad-minded as possible, that statesman even allied himself with the Republican parties on the occasion of the last General Election held under the Crown; and the result was what we all know.

The Republic owes its origin to the Carbonarios.

To the Carbonarios the Republic owes its origin: to the Carbonarios it will probably owe its downfall. For the chiefs of the army will be more than human if they can endure much longer the interference of secret society civilians in their barracks.

Last year the zeal of the Carbonarios, *lictores populares denunciatores,* who considered it their duty to visit the various military barracks so as to ascertain if the Republicanism and anti-clericalism of the officers was being

kept well up to the mark, nearly caused a conflict between the civilian revolutionaries and the army. Seeing their authority set at naught, and the military regulations violated by those Inquisitors of the Republic, the Carbonarios, commanders of regiments began to protest. The *Paiz* stated that, owing to the increasing insubordination of the soldiers as a result of Carbonario interference, 400 soldiers were imprisoned at one time in the Castle of S. Jorge, and a still greater number in the fort of Alto do Duque.

The insubordination of the soldiers.

Even the military leaders, themselves, are not free from the scrutiny of Carbonarios, who act for the Government, and who are unofficially attached to regiments, like the commissioners of the French Convention. Indeed, on one occasion, when the commandant of the 3rd Caçadores paraded his men in order to hold an inquiry into the flight of two officers to Galicia, a Carbonario claimed to have a voice in the matter on the ground that he was legitimately delegated by the Government.

The presence of these civilian supervisors in the regiments strikes, of course, at the root of all military discipline. After the October revolution, the sentinels on guard at barracks and elsewhere used to be seen sitting on chairs. This custom has ceased, but the latent insubordination remains. An officer who once reproved a sentry for smoking was answered back with "Já me tinham dito que vossa se-

nhoria era muito thalassa!" ("I had heard it said that your honor was a strong thalassa" —thalassa being a slang term of contempt for Royalist).

A Colonel was hooted by the people and attacked by the Press because he took from his soldiers a number of secret society banners which they had insisted on carrying in the ranks, and because he discouraged their practice—a practice which had come in with the Republic—of answering the ovations of the populace with wild yells. These yells the Colonel seems to have regarded as incompatible with "the severe composure which the soldier in the ranks ought to maintain under all circumstances."

From the military element, therefore, many people expect the reaction which will recall King Manuel, or, more likely, establish a less Jacobin form of Republic. But Carbonarism is a medicine which it is hard to eject from the system of a nation. It is a remedy which is certainly worse than the disease it is supposed to cure.

The remedy worse than the disease.

Every revolution is, of course, engineered by a secret society, but, as a rule, the secret society ceases to exist when it has accomplished its work. The societies which brought about the Young Turk revolution and the Portuguese revolution were exceptional. After having accomplished their primary object they still continued to rule Turkey and Portugal

respectively on the narrowest secret society lines. It must be admitted, of course, that in both cases the circumstances were peculiar. If the Young Turks had established a really constitutional government, the Arabs, Albanians, Serbs, and Greeks would have outnumbered the Turks in the Chamber, and would, perhaps, have combined to give each other autonomy in turn. And, in the case of the Serbs and the Greeks, autonomy would have meant subsequent annexation to a foreign State. In the same way the Portuguese Republicans might plead that an absolutely free hand to the Catholics in the Press and at the elections would have meant a Royalist restoration, civil war, and Spanish intervention. It would have been of no use to assure them that an indulgent treatment of political opponents never does harm. They would simply have pointed to the fate of that most liberal and indulgent monarch, the ex-King Manuel.

Many regret establishment of the Republic.

The Carbonarios have saved the Republic, but at such inconvenience to the people at large that many Portuguese will heartily regret that the Republic was not lost. For, being ignorant, fanatical men, unaccustomed to regular police work, the Carbonarios have arrested or induced the regular police to arrest hundreds of innocent people.

"It is useless" (writes Senhor Carlos Dias) "for the civil governor to publish in the Lisbon papers statements to the effect that he does

not allow any but the regular police to effect arrests. Every day the zealous Carbonario arrests, searches, and shows, it is to be feared, in the exercise of these official functions, fanaticism and brutality. On the simple denunciation of a drunkard, the Brazilian actress Lucilio Peres had to submit to see her room in the Hotel Franckfort invaded and her trunks searched for contraband of war. If we were to recount all the wrongful excesses discreetly chronicled in our newspapers, the arbitrary arrests, the illegal invasions of domicile, the aggressions and denunciations of these fanatical agents of the great secret organization which intimidates the Government itself, we would have to be so prolix that the thread of our narrative would be broken. It would be unjust to deny, however, that it is to the vigilance of the Carbonaria that the Government owes in great part the discovery of the Royalist plot. Thanks to the terror inspired by the Carbonario's well-earned reputation, the Republic has been able to crush innumerable reactions. Worse than the familiar of the Holy Inquisition, the Carbonario has become a terrible figure before whose eyes the boldest quail. All the Minho has been superficially subdued by the vigilance of these Argi, who find in the northern peasant a fund of ingenuous superstitions which render him an extremely favorable subject for domination. And the Carbonario loses no opportunity of hyp-

The terror inspired by the Carbonarios.

notizing his victim for the great advantage of the Republic. The worst feature of this system, however, is that the hypnotic force becomes more powerful and more exacting each time it is employed. It has finally acquired unbounded influence over the Government, prejudicing and embarrassing the mental action of the Cabinet, and imprinting on it a Jacobin, intolerant and demagogic character which renders it unsuitable for the rule of a composite State."

"The Carbonaria is, in a word, a terrible power," says Senhor Dias, who goes on to show that its influence "is bound to efface all idea, even the most rudimentary idea, of legalism." "An essentially revolutionary organization, its work should have ended with the revolution; nevertheless, its instruments of revolt continue in action, continue to impress on the Republic its own alarmingly turbulent character."

Thus the mysterious body which, in October, 1910, called the Republic into existence, and which has twice saved the Republic since, is not only preventing the normal development of its own offspring, but is slowly strangling it.

Strike at Zurich.

[A twenty-four-hour strike is declared at Zurich as a protest against loose immigration laws in Switzerland. David Lloyd-George, Chancellor of the Exchequer, is assaulted in

London by an opponent of his national insurance scheme. Five members of the Chinese Cabinet resign. The National Insurance Act goes into effect in Great Britain, upon which 30,000 dock laborers in Liverpool and Birkenhead refuse to pay tax and strike. The dirigible balloon *Akron* explodes during a flight at Atlantic City, killing its builder, Melvin Vaniman, and four of the crew. The International Radio-Telegraph Conference in London adopts a series of recommendations concerning the use of wireless at sea. New flags with two new stars for the States of Arizona and New Mexico are raised on all government buildings. Thirty-nine persons killed and sixty injured on the Delaware, Lackawanna & Western Railroad near Corning, N. Y. Twenty-six persons killed and thirty injured on the Ligonier Valley Railroad at Wilpen, Pa. King Gustav opens the fifth revival of the Olympic Games at Stockholm; American athletes win the pentathlon and all three places in the one hundred metre dash, the high jump, and all three places in the eight hundred metre race, the standing high jump, the four hundred metre run and the three thousand metre team race; K. K. McArthur of South Africa wins the Marathon; James Thorpe, the Carlisle Indian, wins the decathlon, or all-round championship contest. Thirteen passengers killed and twenty injured in a rear-end collision on the Chi-

The fifth Olympic Games.

cago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad, near Chicago. Porto Rico reports twenty-one deaths from bubonic plague. Death of Sir Lawrence Alma-Tadema. Herman Rosenthal, a gambler, about to give evidence concerning graft in the New York Police Department, is shot and killed by five men who escape in an automobile. The first convention of the Progressive Party is held in Atlantic City. Lieutenant Charles Becker of the New York Police Force is indicted for having instigated the murder of Rosenthal. Turkish Cabinet resigns; Tewfik Pasha is appointed Grand Vizier. Asquith welcomed on his visit to Ireland, and promises an early passage of the Home Rule Bill. Mexican rebels attack a train near Mexico City and kill forty passengers and forty escorting soldiers. Albanian revolutionists capture the town of Pristina. Winston Churchill, First Lord of the British Admiralty, delivers a noteworthy speech before the House of Commons upon the government's new plans for a larger navy to meet Germany's preparations. A fleet of Italian torpedo boats, attacking the forts at the Dardanelles, is repulsed. Mexico and the United States agree over the boundary near El Paso, the land to be purchased by the United States. Spain refuses to expel the Portuguese royalists who have taken refuge over the border. Leaders of the London dock strike appeal to the American Federation of

Graft in New York Police Department.

Labor for funds. Earthquake partially destroys the city of Guadalajara, Mexico. Cloudbursts and floods in Pennsylvania and West Virginia drown more than sixty persons. Boston car strike ends in a victory for the employees. The first National Newspaper Conference assembles in Madison, Wis. The discontented longshoremen of the port of New York receive an increase of ten per cent. in wages. Deaths of Jules Henri Poincaré, the famous French mathematician, Andrew Lang, the British essayist; Dr. Horace Howard Furness, the Shakespearean scholar; and Massenet, the French composer. Mutsuhito, forty-four years Emperor of Japan, dies in Tokio and is succeeded by the Crown Prince Yoshihito. Senate passes the Panama Canal Bill. The House passes a measure requiring that all ocean-going vessels shall be properly equipped with lifeboats. The Progressive Party in session in Chicago nominates Theodore Roosevelt for President, and Governor Hiram Johnson, of California, for Vice-President. Massacre of one hundred Bulgarians by Mohammedans in European Turkey. Mrs. Mary Leigh, the suffragette who threw a hatchet at Asquith, and Gladys Evans, who set fire to the Theatre Royal in Dublin, are sentenced to five years' imprisonment. Mulai Hafid, Sultan of Morocco, abdicates and is succeeded by his brother, Mulai Youssef.]

Theodore Roosevelt nominated by Progressive Party.

THE GENIUS OF PASTEUR

(A.D. 1912)

STEPHEN PAGET

IT IS pitiful how this word *genius* has suffered on its travels through mankind. To see such a word at the mercy of loose talkers, is to be reminded of Christian and Faithful in Vanity Fair. The meaning of their names, and the sound of their voice, were lost in a place like that. The populace neither understood them, nor was content to leave them alone: they were maltreated by fools, who at last put them in a dungeon and left them there. So it is with all words of a contemplative character: they are roughly handled by ignorant folk who will neither think them out nor do without them. Among these martyr-words, none has experienced worse abuse than *genius*—or, to call it by its right name, *Genius*. Seeing what upstart words adorn themselves nowadays with capital letters, we must not refuse to *Genius* this mark of distinction: for it is one of a highly connected family, all of them mentioned in the "Who's Who" of words living or lately deceased. *Genius loci,* for example, is a fine conception: any word might well be proud of be-

Abuse of the word genius.

longing to the old faith that places may somehow be inspired, may have more than ourselves in them, and may address themselves to us. It is true that rural deities and local nymphs are not true; still, this pagan creed outworn, that there is a personal influence in this or that bit of the country, this or that home, has its advantages over the childish definition of genius as an infinite capacity for taking pains. Infinite or finite, all capacities must come from somewhere; and genius is where they come from.

Perhaps to restore this word on its throne, we must look away from definitions, and look at facts. There have been men and women of genius; they are rare, but there have been some. There was Pasteur. By what sign, or signs, do we know, past all doubt, that he was a man of genius?

A man of genius.

It is a sign of genius, if the work of a man's life obeys and fulfils a plan which seems to have been made not by him but for him; if all the good in him is orderly brought out, as a conductor brings out every instrument in the orchestra; if we cannot so much as look at him without an immediate and irresistible sense that he was all of him design, none of him chance; that he was an idea worked out, a program got through. Once we think what Pasteur did with his life, we see that genius had its designs on him. The man himself is a better argument from design than any amount

of Paley's Evidences. For he is taken, in the straight course of his work, up every rung of the scale of creation, from inorganic matter to man: and he only left off there because man is the top rung of the ladder. Physics, inorganic chemistry, organic chemistry, ferments, diseases of wines and beers, diseases of silkworms, diseases of poultry and sheep and cattle and swine, diseases of man—up he went, his genius directing every step, from the discovery of molecular disymmetry to the discovery of the protective treatment against rabies. As the embryo, advancing toward birth, dreams its way through lower types, experimenting with ducts and gills and tail, and then discarding them, yet, after birth, still bears the impress of these experiments, so Pasteur thought his way up through creation. He began with mathematics, which is where creation begins: and he lived to hear of the first few thousands of children saved with diphtheria-antitoxin.

Another sign of genius.

But there is another sign of genius. In the abiding power, the continuing output of a man's work, after he is dead. Pasteur died more than seventeen years ago, September 28, 1895. The example of his life shines on us, and his memory is one of the world's treasures. Such purity, loving-kindness, and humility, were daily in him, such passionate reverence for facts, such faith, laborious patience, and self-judgment. The sound of his name is like

music; and his epitaph was written, long ago, in the saying that the righteous and the wise and their works are in the hand of God. That is to say, their works are still going on, still making themselves useful, here and now, on earth. Men to-day are advancing them along new lines, adapting them to fresh purposes, raising them to higher levels, and carrying them to logical consequences. That is just what it is for a man's work to be "in the hand of God"; it must be there, to be here: if it were not there, it would be nowhere. The man dies, but the genius of a man's work, or the work of a man of genius, whichever we prefer to call it,

> Lives through all life, extends through all extent,

as Pope says, putting the whole case into the nutshell of a line. So Pasteur's work, like Newton's and Darwin's—"up to heaven, all three"—lives and moves to-day through the world's affairs, turning them this way and that.

Molecular disymmetry of crystalline substances.

Sixty-four years ago, as it were to begin with, he made out the molecular disymmetry of certain crystalline substances, and we have it, on the authority of Dr. Tutton and Professor Frankland, that by this discovery, when he was only twenty-six, he founded "one of the most wonderful departments of modern chemistry." His line of argument in 1848 has been "fully vindicated and substantiated," and is

followed, at the present time, in the quest for new synthetic products. Then came the next item on the program. In his work on the disymmetry of crystals, he had chosen, for especial study, tartaric acid and its salts. Science, pure unapplied science, was all that he was thinking of, when he chose this one group of substances. Behold, he had chosen, blindfold, a grape-acid, a by-product of fermentation, a deposit of wine-casks, a commercial article. By this choice he was taken straight, like a man keeping an appointment, into the kingdom of the ferments. Once he got there, his genius turned him loose on the whole world-wide business of brewing and wine-making; and, with him and his microscope came the end of the old haphazard John-Barleycorn ways. If it were possible to write the history of alcoholic drinks, there would be Noah, and there would be Pasteur; the one planted a vineyard, the other used a microscope: Noah happened by chance on the making of "national beverages," Pasteur taught the nations to be scientific over the making of them. He revolutionized this colossal industry; the genius of his work is active to-day in every brewery. His lectures to the vinegar-makers of Orleans are a classic, and his great book on wines and beers is the "Novum Organon" of brewing. So it always is with him; all that he touches turns to gold—to other men's gold.

His great work on wines and beer.

But, early in his work on the ferments, he

was led from increasing the world's wealth to improving the world's health. It is fifty-five years since he read to the Lille Scientific Society his paper on lactic acid fermentation, the ordinary "turning" of milk; and the news, that milk turns sour because germs turn it sour, reached Lister, and was interpreted by him. If milk in a jug were blood in a vein, then the souring of a pint of milk would be a case of acute blood-poisoning. The milk has been infected, it has been wounded with those non-sterilized germ-laden instruments, the feet of a fly: the *bacillus lactis* has been introduced into its system—even a jug of milk may have a system. Fifty-five years ago, this household fact was a discovery, and more than a discovery; it was the very making of the germ-theory, and of modern surgery; and Lister, all his life, gave thanks for Pasteur's guidance. From 1857 onward, the two discoverers were drawing nearer to each other, till their methods were not two but one method, no more separable than the convexity and the concavity of a curve. In 1865, Pasteur began his five years' work on the infective diseases of silk-worms: he took it in hand against his inclinations, and he carried it through, and brought back prosperity to the silk trade: he turned away loss from the cultivators, and starvation from the workers—*O Melibœe, deus nobis hæc otia fecit, Namque erit ille mihi semper deus*—and he won for himself insight into the

The germ theory.

facts of wound-infection. By 1875 he was demonstrating, in the Paris hospitals, the aseptic method. He, who was not a doctor, and had to screw up his courage to go round a hospital, and was made sick by the sight of an examination of the dead body, he was teaching the surgeons; he was declaring, with a few words and a sketch on the blackboard, the nature of puerperal fever; and the old learning began to pale its ineffectual fire, now that his genius was lighting the ways of practice.

The makers of modern surgery.

Next to Lister and Pasteur, among the makers of modern surgery, comes Koch. His book on the infective diseases of wounds spread the new learning in Germany: besides, it was he who introduced the use of gelatin for the growing of germs in pure culture, and extended the use of Weigert's discovery, that germs can be stained with aniline dyes. Till the bacteriologists had these two methods, they could not go ahead: and Koch's earlier work, on wound-infections, is no less important than his later work on tubercle and malaria. By 1880, the genius of Pasteur had re-created, in every civilized country, the study of the infective diseases. *Novus rerum nascitur ordo:* the world, at last, was understanding its own infections: they were made visible under the microscope, independent of any life but their own. Here, under a man's eyes, in a man's hands, were the *contagia viva,* the *materies morbi,* the *particulare virus*—good-bye to

these vague Latinities—here they were, the living agents of a disease, the thing itself, the real offender, isolated from the body, corked up in a test-tube, flourishing on a surface of sterilized gelatin. That is the wonder of Pasteur's work.

Genius, when it makes its abode, none too often, in the family-circle of the medical sciences, makes its presence felt by very plain speaking; it surprises, and may even shock, these quiet sciences, by direct and vivid sentences, which break through accumulated theories like shafts of light through clouds, till they lift, and the sun comes out. So it is with Pasteur: his sayings have the simplicity of his genius, and the air is cleared at the touch of them. For example, his answer to a foolish critic, solemn over a question that was wholly unimportant—*Si vous saviez comme tout cela me'st égal.* Again, when he drew on the blackboard, in 1878, at the French Academy of Medicine, the germs of puerperal fever—*Tenez, voici sa figure.* For truth of teaching, for downright thrill of novelty, these four words are unsurpassable. There is the same note of simplicity in Koch's account, in 1882, of his discovery of the germs of Tubercle:

Koch's discovery of the germs of Tubercle.

"Henceforth, in our warfare against this fearful scourge of our race, we have to reckon not with a nameless something, but with a definite bodily foe, whose conditions of life are for the most part already known, and can be

further studied. *Before all things, we must shut off the sources of infection, so far as it is possible for man to do this.*"

Thirteen years later, in 1895, in Roux's famous paper in the *Agenda du Chimiste,* the same note:

Roux in the *Agenda du Chimiste.*

"See how far we have come, from the old metaphysical idea about virulence, to these microbes which we can turn this or that way —*stuff so plastic that a man can work on it, and fashion it to his liking.*"

These three golden sayings mark the three lines of advance in the fight against the infective diseases: and every medical student ought to know them by heart. Also, he ought to know the chief episodes of the long warfare, the dates of the decisive battles, and the names of the victorious generals. As Romanes wrote "Darwin and After Darwin," so we ought to have "Pasteur and After Pasteur." This delightful book would begin at 1857, with the isolating of the *bacillus lactis.* Three years later, Pasteur was making his final experiment, above Chamonix, on the exclusion of germs from putrescible fluids: and Lister, not yet gone from Glasgow to Edinburgh, was sterilizing cotton-wool dressings by heat. Three years more bring us to 1863, the date of Davaine's finding the germs of anthrax (splenic fever, malignant pustule, wool-sorter's disease). Before Davaine, men of science had seen these germs, and had imagined that they

were some sort of "blood-crystals"; Davaine recognized them for what they are. Anthrax, henceforth, began to be properly understood.

Pasteur's work from 1865 to 1870.

From 1865 to 1870, Pasteur was working in Paris on ferments, and at Alais on the diseases of silkworms (*pébrine* and *flâcherie*): the final proof of his success over these diseases was in the results obtained at Villa Vicentina in 1870, just before the Franco-German War. Lister, during these five years, 1865-1870, published his first paper on the antiseptic treatment of compound fractures; made his experiments in 1867 with the carbolized silk ligature, and in 1868 with the carbolized catgut ligature: and, about 1870, introduced the use of antiseptic gauze.

Next came Schroeter and Weigert, bringing "honorable presents and of great value," as Ambroise Paré called his fees. Schroeter, in 1872, discovered that germs could be made to grow, in pure culture, on solid media, such as slices of potato: and Weigert, in 1875, discovered the use of aniline dyes for the differential staining of germs. The years between 1876 and 1880 are the time of Pasteur's work on fowl-cholera, puerperal fever, and osteomyelitis; Sternberg's work on tetanus; and Laveran's discovery of the germs of malaria.

In 1881, more argosies of science came home. Pasteur presented to the French Academy his memoir on the protective treatment against anthrax; Koch, during the Interna-

tional Medical Congress in London, showed to some English doctors the germs of tubercle; Lister, at this Congress suggested that wound-infection is due rather to direct contact than to germs suspended in the air; and, over in Havana, Finlay inoculated himself and other volunteers with mosquito-borne yellow fever.

In 1883, Koch discovered the "comma-bacillus," the cause of Asiatic cholera; in 1884, the germs of diphtheria, typhoid fever, and tetanus were obtained in pure culture; in July, 1885, Pasteur first used on a patient the protective treatment against rabies; in 1886, he first used the protective treatment against swine-erysipelas; in 1887, Bruce discovered the germs of Malta fever.

In 1890, Behring and Kitasato published their discovery that animals can be immunized, as against anthrax and rabies, so against diphtheria and tetanus: really, there ought to be "National Thanksgivings" for discoveries of this magnitude. In the winter, in Berlin, came the grievous disappointment over the first use of tuberculin. Happily, at the present time, with the fuller knowledge which has been gained since 1890, the use of tuberculin is giving good results, in more ways than one.

The use of tuberculin.

Henceforth, the work so widened, that a mere list of the doings of the pathologists is of no value at all. In 1893, came the inestimable blessing of diphtheria-antitoxin, Haffkine's protective treatment against Asiatic cholera,

and tetanus-antitoxin; in 1894, Yersin and Kitasato discovered the plague-bacillus: in 1895, Bruce's work of nagana (tsetse-fly disease of animals); in 1896, Wright's protective treatment against typhoid fever; in 1897, Haffkine's protective treatment against plague; in 1898, Ross's work on bird-malaria; in 1900, the self-experiments of Sambon and Low, Manson and Warren, and the volunteers during the American Commission in Havana: these self-experiments proved, for all time, the mosquito-theory of malaria and of yellow fever. But what is the good of this list? The story, to be told properly, requires not a list, but a book. In 1903, Bruce set to work on sleeping sickness (tsetse-fly disease in man, trypanosomiasis); in 1904-5 he traced the infection of Malta fever to the goats' milk. In 1907 came Flexner's work on epidemic meningitis, and in 1908 his antitoxin for that disease; in 1910, his work on epidemic infantile paralysis and Ehrlich's work on "606." Last year came the compulsory use, in the United States army, of the protective treatment against typhoid fever: this year, in our own country, the compulsory notification of consumption.

Life-saving discoveries.

All these life-saving discoveries, and many more, have been won for men and animals, through Pasteur's work, and have been given to them, as it were, by his hands and on his advice. He treated mankind and the animal creation; he healed not cases, but nations; and

the whole earth is his patient, enjoying, thanks to him, a marked improvement in its general health.

List of discoveries.

Take the rough, doubtless inaccurate, list of these discoveries. See how it illustrates the three golden sayings. 1. *Tenez, voici sa figure: There, that's what it's like.* The living agents of the disease are discovered in the blood and the tissues of a case of that disease: they are cultivated, outside the body, in pure culture, in test-tubes: and the disease is reproduced, in small animals, with this pure culture. The disease itself is bottled; is visible, under the microscope; take this or that aniline stain; has its likes and dislikes, its tendencies and habits; behaves in this or that way towards heat and cold, light and darkness, air and no air. 2. *We must shut off the source of infection.* Illustrations of this saying are the notification of consumption, the testing of the milk-supply, the tuberculin-test for cattle, and the mallein-test for the diagnosis of glanders; the prohibition of goat's milk to our garrisons in Malta and Gibraltar, the antiseptic and aseptic method of surgery; the Muzzling Act, and quarantine of dogs; the destruction of rats in time of plague; the bringing down of malaria and yellow fever by "anti-mosquito" methods; the bringing down of sleeping sickness—and so forth. 3. *Stuff so plastic that a man can work on it.* Not only can he bottle diseases, but he can standardize them, and pre-

pare, from these standards, his antitoxins and vaccines. Illustrations here are diphtheria-antitoxin, tetanus-antitoxin, Flexner's serum-treatment of epidemic meningitis, Sclavo's serum-treatment of anthrax in man, Shiga's serum-treatment of dysentery; the tuberculin-treatment in cases of consumption; the uses of vaccine-therapy; the protective treatments against rabies, cholera, typhoid fever, plague, rinderpest, distemper, anthrax in sheep and cattle, swine-erysipelas—and so forth.

See, by these instances, how the genius of Pasteur inspires all workers for the health of man and of animals. But, if we could look a hundred years ahead, will his kingdom endure? Will he still dominate medical and surgical practice, and preventive medicine, and State medicine?

Pasteur's work will abide.

The answer surely is, that Pasteur's work will abide, in authority, crowned and enthroned, till the day comes when a man shall be able to receive under his skin, without hurt, a needleful of the germs of tetanus, plague, or anthrax, in pure culture, at full virulence. There is no sign of that day's coming. Hitherto, the work is done along the lines which Pasteur laid down; it is the extension, not the dissolution, of his kingdom; not the death, but the development, of his teaching. *Il faut travailler,* he would say, again and again, toward the end of his life at the Institute. He was past work: it was that last summer, when

they put a tent for him, in the grounds of the Institute, under the trees, and from time to time one of the younger men might go and talk to him. Last of all, he was moved to Villefranche, where are the meadows and farms and stables for the animals used for preparing antitoxins; there he died; but where does his work not live? The fight against plague and cholera in India, rinderpest in the Transvaal, malaria and yellow fever in the Panama Zone, sleeping sickness in the Uganda Protectorate, is fought in his name. He made a way to the saving of hundreds of thousands of human lives. He made a way to the saving of sheep and cattle and horses and dogs and swine and poultry. Back, down the scale of creation, we go in thought, the way he came; and find everywhere the meaning of his life, till we are back at mathematics and physics, which he taught to the boys at the College of Besançon, when he was seventeen, for 300 francs a year and his board and lodging.

Pasteur's death.

[Riotous demonstrations mark the opening of the Hungarian Parliament; the cause being universal suffrage. Socialists riot in Budapest and Parliament. The United States intervenes in Nicaragua and relieves the city of Granada from famine. Arabs and Turks are defeated by the Italians near Derne, Tripoli, one of the bloodiest engagements of the war. The Chinese Minister of Finance refuses the

terms offered by the six Powers for a loan of $350,000,000. Two thousand Chinese soldiers mutiny at Wu-chang. Violent disorders in Mexico. Madero offers amnesty to General Orozco. The Nicaraguan revolutionary leader, General Mena, surrenders to the Americans. Legagneux, the French aviator, ascends in his monoplane to a height of three and one half miles. Armed strikers seize the copper, lead, and silver mines at Bingham, Utah. Henri Chagnoux, the French mineralogist, finds radium existing in greater quantities in Colorado than anywhere else. Nineteenth Universal Peace Congress meets in Genoa. Terrible typhoon in Japan. The French Minister reviews an aerial drill near Paris (20 monoplanes take part). Augusta, Ga., is placed under martial law on account of street railway strikes. Great Anti-Home-Rule demonstration is held at Belfast. Thousands of Ulsterites sign covenant of resistance to Home Rule. Two United States army aviators, Lieut. Rockwell and Corporal Scott, are killed while flying at College Park, Md. Rioting during a twenty-four-hours' demonstration strike at Lawrence, Mass., on the day of the opening of the trial of the labor leaders, Ettor and Giovannitti. Bulgaria, Servia, and Greece order the mobilization of their army reserves to force Turkey to institute reforms in Macedonia. Bulgaria and Servia suspend passenger traffic with Turkey. China ar-

American army aviators killed.

ranges a $50,000,000 loan with a Belgian syndicate. British submarine sinks after a collision off the coast of Kent. Four United States marines are killed and five wounded in capturing a position near Masaya, Nicaragua. Leon, the last stronghold of the revolutionists, surrenders to the Americans. The derailment of an express train on the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad at Westport, Conn., kills seven persons and injures forty. Dynamite explodes in a warehouse at Tampico, Mexico, kills forty-five persons and injures several hundred others. An oil steamer explodes and destroys by fire $3,000,000 worth of vessels and piers at Bayonne, N. J. Several minor engagements on Turkish soil between Turkish troops and Montenegrins and Bulgarians. Montenegro declares war upon Turkey. The Bulgarian Premier refuses to agree to the plan of the Powers for intervention with Turkey in the Macedonian question. The Montenegrin army, in the first engagements of the war with Turkey, forces the Turks from positions on Mount Planinitza and Mount Detchitch. Colonel Roosevelt is shot and dangerously wounded by a fanatic named Schrank while leaving a Milwaukee hotel in an automobile on his way to deliver a political address. President Taft reviews warship fleet assembled in the Hudson at New York. The Nobel prize for medicine is awarded to Dr. Alexis Carrel of the Rockefeller Institute.]

Dr. Carrel awarded Nobel prize for medicine.

SPONTANEOUS EDUCATION: THE MONTESSORI METHOD

(A.D. 1912)

HERBERT BURROWS

EVERY social student of to-day is continually confronted by a very perplexing problem, the difficulty of reconciling the needed control of the individual by the community with the development of the individual as a separate and self-controlled entity. The problem is not, of course, a new one, but year by year it becomes of increasing importance in view of the fact that the complex questions with which civilized humanity has to deal are now mass-questions which, if soluble at all, have seemingly to seek for their solution in the broad application of general principles without much attention being paid to the special needs of the individual as such. Here we directly touch the philosophical battle-ground between the individualist and the socialist, and there is, as yet, little or no evidence that either school of thought has squarely faced the difficulties which are presented to it by the other. The individualist is loth to recognize that with the complex growth of social humanity, control by the community

The educational problem of to-day.

over its units will almost necessarily increase, while the socialist shrinks from attempting to formulate, even in thought, any conception of the extent which that control may have to assume, or of the methods which it may have to employ. Both schools may, perhaps, claim that the time has not yet arrived for any such formulation, but sooner or later the problem will have to be faced.

Have we faced it in that supremely important subject, education, especially in that side of it which is known as elementary?

The Educational Act of 1870.

When the Education Act of 1870 was passed, perhaps the majority of educational reformers rejoiced greatly. For the first time the State, the community, had begun to realize its educational duty to all its children, and to some superficial thinkers the educational millennium seemed in sight. But those thinkers were speedily confronted with the problem outlined above as applied to children, the effective combination of communal educational control side by side with the most careful guarding against the swamping in that control of the separate individualities of the separate children. Even after forty-two years he would be a bold man who would say that this educational problem has been solved.

Admittedly the task was a great one. From the old dame schools in the country villages, through the British and National voluntary schools, to Mr. Forster's Act was a far cry,

and the task was immensely complicated by the enormous growth of industrialism, of congested population, of factory life, of the half-time evil. The "mass" question was growing daily, and the new educational system had, perforce, to accommodate itself to the fact that in the nation's schools where the nation's children were congregated the individual development of the child as a unit seemed almost impossible. New ideas had to be grafted on to old conceptions, or rather to supplant them. Former neglect had to give way to present control, and control when dealing with the vast subject of the education of the children of the nation naturally, perhaps, became impatient of individual details. The education of the child was in danger of being lost in the education of the children, the individual in danger of being swamped in the mass. Up to now the result has been far from satisfactory. No responsible person proposes to abolish the whole of our system of State education, but every real educational reformer is now searching for more bedrock principles and newer and better all-round methods of reaching the heart and the intelligence of the children in our schools.

The education of the child in danger of being lost in the education of the children.

For the teachers in our elementary schools in town and country no praise can be too high. The nation has never yet seemed to realize what it owes to them, but they have been handicapped and overweighted by the

shackles of the system within which they have had to work. The evil effects of "payment by results" for years went far to kill elementary education in the real sense, and to stunt and dwarf the mentality of the children. It seems almost incredible that a hundred and eleven years ago Pestalozzi published "How Gertrude Teaches Her Children," and that seventy-five years ago Froebel opened his first *Kindergarten,* and that still in England we are in many respects far behind the Pestalozzian and Froebel ideas. It has remained for Italian genius to add one more gift to civilization, and to show not only us but the rest of the world how to lay a broad educational foundation on which a superstructure may be built, which shall take into account the whole of the child nature, by individualizing that nature to the fullest extent while developing in concord with it the true communal ideas of mutual friendship and service.

How a broad educational foundation may be laid.

Dottoressa Maria Montessori is an Italian lady who, about fifteen years ago, was assistant doctor at the Psychiatric Clinic of the University of Rome, and had occasion to frequent the insane asylums to study the sick and select subjects from amongst the children. In this way she became interested in the idiot children who were at that time housed in the general insane asylums, and she was led to study thoroughly the idea of pedagogical, as well as medical, treatment for various morbid

forms of disease, such as deafness, paralysis, idiocy, rickets, and the like. Little by little she devoted herself to preparing some of the teachers of Rome for a special method of observation and education of feeble-minded children, giving herself over completely to the actual teaching of the children. Then it gradually dawned on her that the same methods might be successfully applied to normal children. To accomplish this, then, became her life-work, and she has given her principles, ideas, and methods to the world in her illuminating and fascinating book, "Il Metodo della Pedagogia Scientifica applicato all'educazione infantile nella Case dei Bambini," an English translation of which, by Miss Anne E. George, of America, has recently been published, entitled "The Montessori Method."

"The Montessori Method."

Dr. Montessori's educational method is for children of from three to six years, but, as she says in her preface, it is but the earnest of a work that, developing the same principle and method, shall cover in a like manner the successive stages of education, and she believes that it offers an experimental field for the study of man, and promises, perhaps, the development of a science that shall disclose other secrets of nature.

Briefly, Dr. Montessori's method is to allow the child, with as little teaching as possible, to educate itself through the medium of

the senses, and thus gradually develop its latent faculties and character—practically the same idea as Pestalozzi's, "to begin with observation, to pass from observation to consciousness, from consciousness to speech." One of her cardinal ideas is that the innate faculties for this training through the senses are active at a much earlier age in children than is commonly supposed, and she seems, by her method, to have proved her belief. Another of her principles seems to be that children are innately good if properly appreciated. A friendly comment recently passed on her method was that it abolishes original sin, and, as far as regards child life, that idea is really an enormous gain. Ordinarily, even with the best of parents and the best of teachers, the notion still seems to linger that in every child there is a trace of the old Adam which at times must be sternly repressed, even occasionally by corporal punishment. Dr. Montessori's method is the exact antithesis of this. Help the child to manifest the good in itself rather than presuppose the evil in its nature; and even if the evil seems sometimes to show itself it is best dealt with by looking for the cause in faulty training. Such an idea as this is almost entirely foreign to our present methods of elementary education. Often against their will our elementary teachers are forced to drive rather than lead. The educational syllabuses, the rules, and regulations,

The cardinal ideas of the method.

the fixed time-tables, the red-tape, the shadow of officialism, the large classes, the practical inflexibility of school-life, all combine to make the teachers' lives far from happy. The wonder is that they and the children come out as well as they do. Of course, in our infant schools (and it is with these that the Montessori method would more immediately concern itself) there is less routine and much more flexibility, but the infant teachers are still hampered with huge numbers and rules, forms, regulations, inspections, and official criticisms. Dr. Montessori, instead of requiring teachers to say "Don't" or "Do," keeps the teacher, *qua* teacher, in the background as much as possible, and when she (for they are women as yet) is required, would have her say to the children, "Come and let us try this together."

Infant schools established.

Seven years ago Dr. Montessori was enabled to undertake the organization of an infant school in the model tenements of the Roman Association for Good Building. Others of these schools were subsequently opened in different quarters, and named "Casa dei Bambini," "The Children's House." The schools were so successful that their reputation spread at a rapid rate, and, in 1909, Switzerland began to transform its orphan asylums on the same methods and principles, and in June, 1911, passed a law establishing the Montessori system in all its public schools,

thus forging ahead of Italy, where the educational authorities have not yet taken up the system generally. Two model schools were opened in Paris last September, one of them under the direction of the daughter of the French Ambassador to Italy, who has studied with Dr. Montessori in Rome. Shortly, schools will be established in India, China, Mexico, Korea, Honolulu, and the Argentine Republic. As yet there is no news of the system having made any headway against the officialism of German education, but America, eager as usual to entertain new ideas, has warmly welcomed the method, and is fortunate in having for its exponents Miss George, the translator of Dr. Montessori's book, and Professor Henry W. Holmes, of the Division of Education of Harvard University.

America welcomes new method.

Dr. Montessori would not, of course, think of asserting that she has made an absolutely new discovery in human nature. Co-ordinating the kindred principles of her predecessors from Pestalozzi onwards, and making her own application of them, she has achieved the great work of translating into normal child-life the ideas which had hitherto been applied to the feeble-minded, has given liberty instead of repression to the pupil, and, while making the teacher the friend and counsellor of the child, has insisted on the fundamental requisite in all education, the most thorough

training of that teacher, chiefly a training in sympathy and insight. It is no slur on the teachers of England to say that their training is often imperfect—technical rather than human—and it is humanity which in the long run will save and redeem education. Dr. Montessori will have done much if her insistence on this cardinal point leads to a more general recognition of the fact that the education of children, especially of the young, is a human business, and requires as much aptitude and attention as law, medicine, or theology.

The children of the slums.

One great feature of Dr. Montessori's work in Rome is that it deals with the most unpromising material, the very poor children from the slums. It cannot therefore be said that her method is successful because she picks and chooses her cases. In her inaugural address, delivered at the opening of the second "Children's House," in the quarter of San Lorenzo, Rome, she said:

"The quarter of San Lorenzo is celebrated, for every newspaper in the city is filled with almost daily accounts of its wretched happenings. . . . San Lorenzo is not the *people's* quarter, it is the quarter of the *poor*. It is the quarter where lives the underpaid, often unemployed working man, a common type in a city which has no factory industries. It is the home of him who undergoes the period of surveillance to which he is condemned after his

prison sentence is ended. They are all here, mingled, huddled together."

It is from such a region as this that Dr. Montessori's pupils are chiefly drawn. Not that her method is inapplicable to the well-to-do classes, for in Rome a school for these has been set up by a committee, of which the wife of the British Ambassador is a member. But it is the children of the poor with whom Dr. Montessori has mainly worked. And the results have been extraordinary.

The results are extraordinary.

The children of both sexes are taken from about two and a half to six or seven years of age. The method obtains in every department of their life, so long as it is under the teacher's care. The children sleep at home, although Dr. Montessori hopes that one day there will be a system of low-lying hammocks for them at the school. Very great attention is given to food, the meals, etc., and in every way the child life is carefully watched and tended. In order to carry this out thoroughly the school day is long, from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m., but it is essential that as much as possible of the child life should be the school life. It is stated that the influence of even these small children on their home life is extraordinary. A marked improvement has taken place in the personal habits of their parents. The children, young as they are, insist on going clean to school, and this reacts on the mother and imbues her also with personal self-respect. It

all shows that the principle which guides the schools, love plus wisdom, is a most potent factor, even although, as in the case of the parents, it is secondary.

No prizes or punishments.

In the schools there are no prizes or punishments. The children even object to rewards. A lady took a box of medals to a school to distribute to the cleverest and the best children. A little boy of four strongly protested, crying out, "Not to the boys, though, not to the boys!" If children disturb the others without paying any attention to what the teacher says, they are at once examined by the physician. If they are normal children, they are isolated in a comfortable little armchair, so that they can see their companions at work, and they are given their own games and toys. Little by little they are insensibly drawn again to the others, and all the children who at first seemed to rebel against discipline were calmed. Discipline, of course, there is, but it is the discipline of love, not of fear. And here is, above all things, the place and vocation of the teacher, to see that object-lessons, lessons in character, are continually before the children's eyes. The most frequent question that is asked in England about the method is as to the function of the teacher. The query, in connection with this question of discipline, is best answered in Dr. Montessori's own words:

"We call an individual disciplined when

he is master of himself, and can, therefore, regulate his own conduct when it shall be necessary to follow some rule. A special technique is necessary to the teacher who is to lead the child along such a path of discipline, if she is to make it possible for him to continue in this way all his life, advancing indefinitely toward perfect self-mastery. . . . We must check in the child whatever offends or annoys others, or whatever tends toward rough or ill-bred acts. But all the rest—every manifestation having a useful scope—whatever it may be, and under whatever form it expresses itself, must not only be permitted, but must be *observed* by the teacher. Here lies the essential point; from her scientific preparation the teacher must bring not only the capacity, but the desire to observe natural phenomena. In our system she must become a passive, much more than an active, influence, and her passivity shall be composed of anxious scientific curiosity, and of absolute *respect* for the phenomenon which she wishes to observe. The teacher must understand and *feel* her position of *observer:* the *activity* must lie in the *phenomenon.*"

The essential point.

Such a conception of the vocation of the teacher will probably be a revelation to nine-tenths of the teachers of the world!

Although Dr. Montessori's book is to be chiefly valued for the principles of life that it contains, principles without which her prac-

tical method would be useless, the attention of most readers will probably be drawn at first to the material details of that method. Foremost among these is the apparatus she uses for the training, first of the children's senses, and so on to their character and mind. One of the most interesting of these is an "educational gymnastic" to develop co-ordinated movements of the fingers. These prepare the children for the exercises of practical life, such as dressing and undressing themselves. Wooden frames are mounted with two pieces of cloth or leather, to be fastened and unfastened by means of buttons and buttonholes, hooks and eyes, eyelets and lacings, or automatic fasteners. These are among the earliest exercises of children of three and a half. At first the child makes mistakes, finding a button too little or a buttonhole too many. The teacher does not show it its mistake, but leaves it for discovery. The discovery once made, the child has really learned something, educated itself. Then as Signora Montessori says: "As soon as he knows how to do it, he begins to wish to make a practical application of his ability, and very soon he will be proud of being sufficient unto himself, and will take delight in an ability which makes his body free from the hands of others, and which leads him the sooner to that modesty and activity which develop far too late in those children of to-day who are deprived of this most practical form of educa-

"Educational gymnastic."

tion." And then, "By their fruits ye shall know them." A few months ago an English visitor and his wife went to a school. His wife's blouse was unfastened at the top. A mite of four noticed this. She gravely took her little stool (the children have each their own seat), stood it in front of the lady, mounted it, fastened her blouse, politely bowed, took her stool, and returned to her place, stopping on her way to fasten up the bootlace of another child which she noticed was undone. That, in short, is the Montessori method! The nimble education of the body, the spontaneous application of that education, the courtesy which arose from the sense of human comradeship. If this is the result in a child of four, what may not be expected from the future man and woman whose lives are developed upward on these lines? And that is Dr. Montessori's faith and hope.

The book must be read to appreciate fully this very fascinating side of the method. The children's eyes are trained with colors, their touch, when blindfolded, with smooth and rough surfaces, velvet, sand, etc., their mathematical instincts with blocks—oblong, cube, square, round—with rods of different lengths. But it is not to be supposed that this is mere material or mechanical training. It is simply one part of a great unifying idea, the all-round training of the child. The intellectual faculties are at work all the time, without stress or

The all-round training of the child.

strain, in a pleasurable way, and to a degree which is almost incredible. One especially interesting example is the teaching of reading and writing. Séguin and Itard had certain ideas on this, founded on experiment, but Dr. Montessori invented a method of her own with deficient children. Having taught the children to touch the contours of the plane geometric inset, she next taught them to touch with their fingers the forms of the letters of the alphabet. Then, by a careful series of grade experiments, coupled with linguistic efforts, she eventually taught reading and writing. In her schools of normal young children she follows out a modification of this to such an extent that children write spontaneously. The same visitor stated that he saw a child of four spontaneously write a sentence (the first he had ever written) on the blackboard without ever having really been taught to write in the ordinary sense, and Signora Montessori says that while the children in the first elementary were laboriously working to forget their wearisome pothooks, and to prepare for making the curves of "o" and the other vowels, one of her little ones of five years of age wrote, in the name of himself and his companions, a letter of good wishes and thanks to Signor Edoardo Talamo, and this without blot or erasure. Signor Nathan, the Mayor of Rome, has stated that when the children leave the *Casa dei Bambini* for the ordinary elementary

The remarkable progress made by children taught by the method.

schools of Rome, they are at least a year ahead of other children, and there has been no precocity or undue forcing.

Space prevents a further exposition of a method of education which is undoubtedly destined to revolutionize much of educational thought and practice, if it is allowed room to expand. Our own Board of Education sent Mr. Holmes (the author of "What Is and What Might Be") to Rome to report on the Montessori system, and he is understood to be entirely favorable to it. An English Montessori Society has been formed, and this autumn two or three lady students will be sent by the Society to Rome to study under Dr. Montessori. When they return they will devote themselves to the training of teachers, and it is hoped that the method will then be planted in England. There are many difficulties in the way. It is impossible to try the method as part of the ordinary work or routine of our elementary schools. Special rooms and special appliances are needed, and, above all, special teachers. But it is a cheering sign that the London County Council has consented to allow the method to be tried in a few of their schools, they bearing the expense.

No one imagines that the Montessori method will transform child-nature in a year or two, but it will certainly lay a secure foundation for a nobler educational child-life.

Secure foundation for child's life.

The closing words of Dr. Montessori's in-

tensely interesting book may very fitly be the close of this article.

Influence of "The Children's House."

"'The Children's House' seems to exert a spiritual influence upon everyone. I have seen here men of affairs, great politicians preoccupied with problems of trade and of state, cast off like an uncomfortable garment the burden of the world, and fall into a simple forgetfulness of self. They are affected by this vision of the human soul growing in its true nature, and I believe that this is what they mean when they call our little ones wonderful children, happy children—the infancy of humanity in a higher stage of evolution than our own. . . . Truly our social life is too often only the darkening and the death of the natural life that is in us. These methods tend to guard that spiritual fire within man, to keep his real nature unspoiled, and to set it free from the oppressive and degrading yoke of society. It is a pedagogical method informed by the high concept of Immanuel Kant: 'Perfect art returns to nature.'"

THE PANAMA CANAL*

(A.D. 1912)

STEPHEN BONSAL

THE Isthmus of Panama runs nearly east and west, and the canal traverses it from Colon on the north to Panama on the south, in a general direction from northwest to southeast, the Pacific terminus being twenty-two miles east of the Atlantic entrance.

The greatest difficulty of the canal project now nearing completion was and is the control and disposal of the waters of the Chagres River, and its many tributaries. The Chagres runs a circuitous serpentine course, backwards and forwards across the Isthmus from its source in the San Blas Mountains, emptying into the Caribbean Sea a mile or two west of Limon Bay. One of the merits claimed for the canal plan as finally adopted is that it converts what was an obstacle into the motive power of the colossal project, for without the formerly greatly feared floods of the Chagres the canal would simply be a dry ditch, useless for navigation.

The waters of the Chagres.

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* Reprinted from *The American Mediterranean*, by Stephen Bonsal (New York, 1912); Moffat, Yard & Co., publishers. By permission.

The American canal consists of a sea-level entrance channel from Limon Bay to Gatun, about seven miles long, forty-one feet deep at mean tide, and with a bottom width of five hundred feet. At Gatun the canal becomes a high-level canal, from which it takes its name. Here a mammoth dam has been constructed across the valley by which the waters of the Chagres River are impounded and a lake, which will have an area of about a hundred and sixty-four square miles, is formed. This high level is maintained until Pedro Miguel, thirty-two miles away, is reached. Here the Pacific side of the lake is confined by a dam between the hills, and here also the descent towards a lower level begins through the locks.

The Gatun dam.

The Gatun dam, which is the bulwark of the reservoir lake, is nearly one mile and a half long, measured on its crest, fully half a mile wide at its base, and about four hundred feet wide at the water surface, and the crest, as planned, will be at an elevation of one hundred and fifteen feet above mean sea-level, and about thirty feet above the expected normal level of the lake. Of the total length of the dam only five hundred feet, or one-fifteenth part, will be exposed to the maximum water head or pressure of eighty-five feet. As a matter of fact, this bulwark is a mountain rather than a dam, and it is confidently expected that a view of its colossal proportions

will disarm those critics of the project who have ever thought to see in an earthen dam at this point the fatal weakness of the high-level plan.

The spillway in the dam is a concrete-lined opening twelve hundred feet long and three hundred feet wide cut through a hill of rock nearly in the centre of the dam, the bottom of the spillway opening being ten feet above sea-level. There are six double locks of concrete in the canal, three pairs in flight at Gatun, with a combined lift or drop of eighty-five feet. One pair at Pedro Miguel with a lift or drop of thirty and a third feet, and two pairs at Miraflores with a combined lift or drop of fifty-four feet eight inches at mean tide. For sixteen miles from the Gatun dam the canal channel will be a thousand feet broad, then for four miles it will narrow to eight hundred feet and for four miles farther, indeed to the northern entrance of Culebra cut at Bas Obispo, it will have a width of five hundred feet, with depth varying from eighty-five feet to forty-five feet the minimum. The water-level in the cut will, of course, be that of the lake and with a minimum depth of forty-five feet. Through the cut the minimum bottom width of the canal, three hundred feet, will be reached.

The Pacific side.

On the Pacific side of the cut or continental divide the canal work consists, in addition to the locks already enumerated, of the break-

waters extending from Balboa to Naos Island, a distance of a little more than three miles, and the excavation of the canal and ocean channel to deep water in the Pacific. At the Pacific entrance of the canal the fluctuations of tide are considerable, amounting to nearly twenty feet. The arrangements in the form of gates in the tidal lock, by which this obstacle is to be met, are new and untried, and there is no absolute certainty that they will work successfully. Here we are face to face with one of several important details of the great construction which are absolutely without precedent, and whose strength or weakness will only be apparent when the canal is completed.

Length of canal.

The length of the canal from shore-line to shore-line is about forty miles. From deep water to deep water it is ten miles longer. Throughout its course there are no lazy turns, a thing which the mariner notes with delight. The changing course is met by a succession of twenty-two clean-cut angles, without excessive curvature in any place such as would retard or endanger navigation.

Even from the above fragmentary sketch of the canal project the vital importance of an adequate water supply will be apparent. Critics of the high-level plan, which we adopted, have not of late so frequently repeated their criticisms of the Gatun dam, but on the question of whether we have enough water to work the canal they are far from being silent.

And, of course, in a sense their criticism is not without foundation—however magnificent the dam, however wonderful the locks, and however accurate the electrical appliances to supply the power, sea-going ships will not be able to pass from ocean to ocean, and the dream of centuries will not be realized, unless the water-level of forty-five feet is always maintained in the channel of the interoceanic waterway.

The water-level.

The confidence of the canal engineers in the adequacy of the visible water supply to maintain the necessary water-level is based on figures, measurements, and observations which were started by the French in 1880, and have been continued by ourselves. What appear to be liberal allowances are made for evaporation and seepage and leakage at the water gates of the locks. However, should these figures prove to be deceptive, should in the dry season water not be forthcoming in sufficient quantities for all the lockages desired, the canal will not remain on our hands as the hopeless wreck of a colossal blunder, as these critics maintain will be the case. To meet this contingency, which it is hoped, and with much show of reason, will never arise, a suitable site has been chosen up the Chagres River, ten miles away from the canal prism, where in the season of floods and rains great quantities of water could be accumulated, to be drawn upon in the dry season, in case of shortage.

The emergency dam.

The site of this emergency or secondary dam has been selected and the plan fully worked out, but construction work has not begun, and I understand will not be, until the necessity for the same becomes more apparent.

The engineers.

The great work as outlined above is presided over by Colonel Goethals the master-builder, seconded by Colonel Hodges, assistant chief engineer and designer of the permanent structure of the canal. It is subdivided into three main sections, Colonel Sibert of the engineers being in charge of the Atlantic Division, while Colonel Gaillard, also of the Army, is in charge of the central division, which includes the Gatun lake and the Culebra cut. The Pacific Division is the peculiar domain of Mr. S. B. Williamson, a civil engineer of great distinction, one of the many such who are numbered among the alumni of the Virginia Military Institute. Admiral Rousseau is the worthy representative of the Navy in the great work, while the duties of Mr. Joseph B. Bishop, the secretary of the Commission, are many and exacting, as are those in a different sphere of Mr. Thatcher, the civil administrator of the Canal Zone.

The first days of the visitor (if he is a layman) in the Canal Zone, as a rule, leave only a confused recollection of many things seen and little understood. Generally he rushes wildly about for a week of bewildered days, dividing his time with strict impartiality between the

many great and striking features of the work. Then, if he is wise, he settles down and tries to get upon closer and more intimate terms with some one of the wonders unfolded, that one probably which he flatters himself he understands. I, charmed by their simplicity, gradually became identified with the water-gates of the Gatun lock, at the Atlantic entrance to the high level. Truly, as the foreman explained, the mechanism of the gates is within the grasp of the most simple-minded, merely "an open and shut game," as he said, but of enthralling interest, for here the waters of the Atlantic will make their first onward rush to wreck the work of soaring man, and here, if all goes well, the dreadnoughts and the ocean greyhounds alike will be made to walk upstairs.

The water-gates.

And here everything is on a gigantic scale. The men who are building these great water-gates at Gatun treat appliances that handle fifty-ton weights as though they were feather dusters, with as much nonchalance as if they were sewing machines. This is a place where the roar of the sledge hammers is ceaseless, and the drumming of the riveting irons is never hushed. Each leaf of the mitred gate costs, I believe, a hundred thousand dollars, and the great rivets by which the leaves are fastened into place are doubtless not as cheap as ten-penny nails. In the twilight of the lock interior the rivets are hurled from the heating

furnaces to where they are needed. As they fly through the air to the great gates which are being forged to keep out the floods of the Atlantic, they look like nothing half so much as a shower of meteors rushing through the darkling air into space.

Here at the first water-gate of the Gatun locks and beyond by the timbered coffer-dam, which to-day alone protects and shields the mitred gates of iron from the onrush of the Atlantic tides, perhaps the advanced state of the work is most apparent and you soon fall into the illusion that everything is ready for shipping until the cold calculating foreman, with the steel-blue eye, comes along and blasts your dream by the admixture of a few, to me, wholly unsympathetic facts, but at all events, ever the foreman cannot deny this, the picture changes every day, and every hour spells progress somewhere. One day I rode through the drainage canal at the bottom of the locks and came back at noon the next day to repeat the performance, only to find the outlet through which we had steamed so gaily, closed with a corselet of steel, which was being flooded by a river of cement. The little engine in which we had traveled was entirely cut off from the railway system, and the engineer was not a little perturbed at the separation. He came from Colorado and did not like being a one-horse railway by himself. "The Superintendent wants me to fetch and carry down in this

Every hour spells progress.

here canyon for a month or two," he explained, "but some day he will drop a chain from a crane and haul me out to open air and the main system again, at least that's his promise."

And one day as I lingered by the coffer-dam I saw the fate of that water which had been so presumptuous as to threaten the water-gates with flood and the cement-larkers with drowning. The engineers had slipped another dam behind the pressing flood, and quietly and without noise of any kind the water which I and many another observer had thought destined to be first in the lock was being squirted out over an adjacent prairie. After the water was out the suction dredges sucked up thousands of yards of slime, filled up a little lake, by means of their great extension-pipes, and here and there reduced mountains to molehills. In a few hours many familiar features of the landscape had disappeared. When all the ooze was sucked out, the drilling machines were placed on the bed rock that was now disclosed to view, and one wall began to rise which is to protect the vast lock structure from earth slides and another to guide the incoming steamers to their first resting place on their epoch-making journey across the continental divide. So you see to-day the freckle-faced, flannel-shirted hydraulic engineer can do all the things to the ocean that King Canute could not.

Familiar features of the landscape disappear.

Suddenly the eleven o'clock whistle echoes through the yellow canyon, and the uproar from many machines dies slowly, it would seem reluctantly away, and the voices of the foremen can be heard shouting: "Pick 'em up, pick 'em up!" And the men turn their backs on the great water-gates, which are ajar. Just as the whistle sounded a trained and, as it would seem, thoroughly domesticated traveling crane had deposited with precision and with something like respectful obedience to the touch of the button or the turn of the lever, at their very feet, an eighteen-ton girder for one leaf of the water-gate, which in the fulness of time is destined to hold back the waters of the ocean. The chains are loosened of their burden, and the riveters, climbing down from their perches, coil the chains about their bodies as if they were ropes of flowers and shout: "Pick 'em up! Haul away!" I wish you could see then the dark despair that is depicted on the faces of the men on the lower level, whose fate it is to puddle about in the swamps of cement below and who, by reason of the great rubber trousers which they wear, and the uneasy element, neither liquid nor solid, in which their working hours are lived, are not quick movers.

"Pick 'em up!"

"Pick 'em up! Pick 'em up!" the cry resounds through the ravine. Some one touches the button or some one turns the lever and the traveling crane hoists away out of the depths

a score or so of half-naked men with beads of perspiration dripping from their bare khaki-colored backs. As they squirm in and out among the chains and perform acrobatic feats that made at least one observer's heart sink into his boots, they are shot out of the yellow canyon, and swinging clear of the earth, dangle for a moment some fifty feet overhead, a glowing tangled knot of humanity, that recalls some masterpiece from the chisel of Cellini more than anything I had ever seen in life before. Then they are dropped softly down to the top level of the lock structure and start for dinner quietly, just as though they had stepped off a trolley car.

Out of the glare of the sun the men pass into the subdued light and the welcome coolness of the bird cage-shaped and wired eating houses, which give the whole line of our new waterway such a very Japanese appearance. As they pass out of the sunlight into the twilight beyond the turnstile, the men finger little brass numbered checks, like the old-fashioned trunk checks of the last decade, which hang from their belts and serve to identify them. I believe, as a man's work is done and a section of the great work finished, these checks are called in and the man passes out into the world with nothing tangible to show that he has played his part in that great work which is the wonder of the day and likely to remain the miracle of the ages. I think every man

The brass checks.

who sees the thing through or does his little part of it with credit should be allowed to retain this medal of highest honor, this Victoria Cross, this emblem of membership in that greater Society of the Cincinnati.*

When the traveler comes to Culebra, fortunately for him he cannot see all the wonders and all the horrors of the crooked, snaky "cut" at once, and so he escapes a very disagreeable moment. It is best to take the troubles which the cutting of the divide entails in short cross-sections, emulating the example of Colonel Gaillard, the engineer upon whom the solution of the Culebra problems has devolved, and who is known as the most cheerful man in the Zone. At a banquet of the "Kangaroos" an orator described him, not inaptly, as "the cheerful chamois of the Culebra cut." Upon him the duty has devolved of severing this backbone that holds North and South America together, and, surprisingly enough, the trouble is not that this backbone is tough, but that it has hardly the strength and consistency of the traditional chocolate éclair. It won't stay cut, but slides together again, and if they can't get together the severed portions will not sit up, can hardly be made to sit up when supported, what they love to do is to relax or collapse, and to drop down into that dry ditch

"The cheerful chamois of the Culebra cut."

*I am informed since the foregoing was written that the Isthmian Canal Commission are now permitting all men who are honorably discharged after two years' work to take with them these simple metal disks.

where some day soon, though it requires the faith that removes mountains to believe it, the ocean greyhounds will go steaming by.

Perhaps you could take in with your eye a cross-section of the staggering spectacle which the Culebra presents, if it were not for the noise. Perhaps you have never heard of noise affecting the optic nerve, but that is merely one way of saying you have never been in the "cut." Down there the man of keenest hearing has no advantage over the deaf mute. If you are not struck speechless as you ought to be, communicate your thoughts in the sign language, but you had better concentrate all your attention on flying boulders, incipient avalanches, and erratic steam shovels. All about you are marshaled machines, whole battalions of machines of every variety, those that build up and those that tear down. The whole gamut of invention is represented from the drill, that goes through granite, to the titanic hose, which washes away bulging hillocks and sharp corners just as though they were so many sand piles erected by children at play. And speaking of children, the concrete guns are simply boys' blow-pipes, magnified to heroic size. They squirt their sticky charges against the uneasy walls of the man-created canyon in the hope (it never was realized) that after this tonic has been administered the walls will sit up and cease from crumbling away.

Steam shovels and hose.

But the steam shovels, especially those of

the ninety-five ton variety, are the popular tools which report progress every time they eat into the mountain-side, and lay bare its geological secrets. Sometimes moonstones and agates are brought to light, but generally it is dirt, generally dirt of the most "ornery" kind, as the steam-shovel men all agree. After the shovels come the hose, washing up the débris, clearing the sidewalks, as it were, under tremendous hot-air pressure. The cavalry, it would seem, are represented by the patrols and squads of spidery-shaped drills, which make the holes for the dynamite. You think these drills are simply playing and wasting valuable time; as a matter of fact, they do not occupy the centre of this great stage until at noon, when the hungry hordes have gone to eat, or at night when they have gone away to sleep at higher levels. It is only then that the flights and squadrons of drills are withdrawn from the advanced posts, where they have been digging dynamite holes all day, and the electric spark is sent along the invisible wire, and, with a roaring crash, the hills are rent. It's a great moment, this, for the drills, and for those grimy, daring men who play around all day in the bottom of the cut with dynamite sticks as others play with golf clubs. There is no one there to cheer, but it is a hard moment for the bluff steam shovels with their blustering ways, and they generally relieve the awkwardness of the mo-

Moonstones and agates brought up by shovels.

ment by blowing off steam. Great and mighty are the shovels and deservedly far-reaching is their renown, but the mighty excavation has brought to light nuts which the shovels would find it hard to crack were it not for the preparatory pioneer work of the slender drills and the disintegrating influence of the dynamite charges.

Gold Hill.

The walk through the cut always leads to where Gold Hill, the highest point in the Zone, throws, in more senses than one, its dark shadow over this section of the battlefield. I have always been a follower of those enthusiastic, plausible, and perhaps profoundly ignorant men who have tried so hard to induce the canal commissioners to undermine Gold Hill on the far side, not for treasure trove, but in the hope that, robbed of its underpinnings, this menacing mountain would slide away and disappear from the horizon, where to-day it looms so large and so full of menace. The project has never appealed to the commission. The movement of the hill, they claim, supposing that it had once been started, would depend entirely upon the underlying geological formation, of which we know nothing, and not upon the wishes of the starters. Probably it is best to leave it alone—as they have decided. However, where all the earth is moving it seems excessively optimistic to hope that Gold Hill will always stand stock-still. Perhaps it may slide away from it, perhaps it may

slide into the "cut." Certain only it is that so long as Gold Hill stands where it does there is the possibility of a catastrophe which would wreck our inter-oceanic waterway for years, and perhaps forever.

The army of workers.

While the working hours are on and fifty thousand husky men are working within the canal prism at high pressure to see the thing through, you feel proud to be a man and a brother of these men of many colors and of many nations, who, under the leadership and the guidance of American engineers, are removing mountains, flooding waterways, and preparing the dry land. There is no thought of failure or even of appreciable delay along that far-flung battle line, from the shallows in Limon Bay, where Drake is resting in his leaden coffin, to "old" Panama, where Morgan was wont to singe the King of Spain's beard, and make free with his ingots and his bullion.

In working hours you are fired by the enthusiasm of the workers. You, too, though only a camp follower, a spectator, an unworthy clerk, if you will, of the ever victorious army, you too follow the "snow-white plume" to the deepest levels or to the top of the continental divide, from whence Balboa did not see both oceans, unless the old Conquistador's eyes were quite different from those of other mortals. But do not venture into the canal prism at night or on the Sab-

bath, or on one of the infrequent holidays, if you would preserve your equanimity and optimistic poise. I spent one solitary Sunday in the cut, and it required many cheery days of companionship with the workers, many bright hours of visible conquest to dispel the gloomy forebodings that then assailed, if they did not quite possess me.

It is an unpleasant experience, and yet I know no other way in which the odds of the venture can be gauged, or the terms upon which the battle is being fought, appreciated. Man is resting, but restless Nature is at work and her sinister opposition to man's greatest achievement becomes apparent in all its deadly effectiveness.

The bursting of a channel.

As I walked along one of the lower reaches of the cut, a bank caved in before my eyes, and I was enveloped in a splashing spray of muddy water. It was as if a geyser had burst out from the bowels of the embankment. I looked about me for an alarm to sound, but I was alone in a great solitude. How criminal it is that men should be at church or playing baseball (and I knew they were both praying and playing, because I had been cordially invited to both places), while the demon of destruction is having its will of the great work! The torrent issuing from the embankment broadened, my heart sank as I saw the lake forming all around me. Can that crazy Spaniard, who leads a hermit existence in the shack

back of the hill, be right after all? How impressively and how without feeling he had said to me only yesterday, "Yes, the Americans are working wonders, their project is worthy of every success, but, of course, success will not be theirs. What God has joined let no man put asunder." I danced and sprang about dodging the rising flood, and while intent upon maintaining my retreat to the mainland, I saw through the embankment, now wholly collapsed, what had happened. The waters of one of the innumerable tributaries of the Chagres had burst the diverting channel through which it was to be escorted out of harm's way and was flooding the lower levels. Soon it would reach the railway bed, soon submerge the steam shovels. Suddenly a familiar sound fell upon my ears. I have heard Christmas chimes and the lightship's bell off a bleak lea shore, but nothing ever sounded half so sweet to me as the chug of that automatic ram that started to work in the lower depths of the culebra cut. Another and another joined in the chorus. Here and there a pump started, and the unruly waters were quelled and pumped back whence, unbidden, they had come.

Fighting the water.

I wish man, with his many inventions, could fight the invading dirt in his absence as successfully as he does the water, but truth compels me to say that, as far as my observation goes, he cannot. All this Sabbath day the gla-

cier-like "slides" were, without haste and without rest, pouring their burden of earth into the deep cut that man, with his many machines and many forms of power, has been so long in making. All the old "slides" were filling in the wounds and covering over the scars, inflicted during the past weeks, while the unmanned steam shovels stood powerless by and one of them at least was well-nigh submerged in the avenging flood. The steam shovels stood by stock-still, but they were not silent under the provocation. A sibilant hissing noise issued from their boilers where the steam is generated that on working days enables the shovels to eat into mountains as though they were old cheeses, and hurl ten-ton boulders around as though they were so many marbles. I could have borne with the old "slides,"—they have, as it were, their traditional justification,—but to see a new "slide" start as I did, indeed two of them, either one of which might sooner or later encompass the overthrow of man's proudest achievement, was hard to bear, especially on a holiday outing. The slides.

The Cucaracha is the famous historic slide, which was first heralded to the world, but the men on the fighting line, I find, more greatly fear that moving avalanche more directly in the cut, and which is consequently called the Culebra slide. The Cucaracha, is, however, the senior slide, and it began to give the French trouble in 1884. It still gives trouble The Cucaracha.

and costs much money. The cost of this one pesky bit of earth that won't sit up and behave itself could have been converted profitably into quite a fleet of battleships. It was at first confined to a length of eight hundred feet measured along the line of excavation, but it has extended or expanded to include the entire basin south of Gold Hill for a length of three thousand feet. Originally but six acres, the Cucaracha now covers nearly fifty acres, always moving restless, irresistible as the sea. Should the Culebra slide develop along these proportions, say the pessimists, our present plan of canal will be defeated.

Avalanches of earth.

Of course we are taking big chances with the "slides," and no one can say with absolute certainty when these avalanches of earth may reach the angle of repose so prayerfully worked for, and which is so different in situations which appear to be exactly similar. If it is to be a fight to the finish, no one can say how much it will cost, or how long it will take to extirpate or remove, by excavation, these pockets of rotten earth of such changing and uncertain dimensions. One cannot feel very cheerful when he sees, or thinks he sees, at all events when he knows by scientific measurements which admit of no denial, that three-quarters of a million of cubic yards of earth are moving directly towards the canal channel; when he learns, by the rudest and most convincing of object lessons, that the flow can-

not be stopped, at all events down to the present never has been stopped, and that it will all have to be dug out sooner or later by the shovel or the dredge.

So it can be said that the Culebra cut, or rather the treatment of the "slides" and the breaks in its banks, has developed into the uncertain and experimental feature of the work and the completion of the "cut," as Colonel Goethals has well said, will also mark the date of the canal's completion. Colonel Gaillard, of the Engineers, who is in immediate command of the forces that are fighting the Antean monster of Culebra, is very anxious to get water into the cut because he believes that the back pressure of the water will give the inefficient banks greater stability; it is also thought that the removal of the railway with its vibration, and the cessation of blasting, will bring relief.

Terrible heat.

Down in the bottom of the "cut" the heat is sweltering, though overhead, on the surface level, the bushes and the few remaining trees are nodding and bowing before the constant breeze. I staggered along, and coming, as I did, to such close quarters with hitherto almost unsuspected forces in the bowels of the earth, strange revelations were to be expected, and certainly they were not lacking. First of all, and certainly to me the most fearful and awful, was the genesis of a new slide. I saw two come into being in the course of the short walk

which I describe. One soon subsided, but the other, for all I know, may be sliding yet. It certainly was moving with unimpaired vigor many hours after I witnessed its sinister birth.

To me, in the depths of the chasm, where at noon it is twilight and the burning heavens straight overhead alone are visible, at the very foot of this breathless pit where the sullen dead heat reigned, it seemed passing strange, but it was nevertheless so, above and not so far away in the breezy above-sea-level world outside men were playing ball, and men and women, too, were going to church, and some of the latter were bent on staying to witness the titanic struggle between the "Kangaroos" and another famous nine, for the Isthmian championship. As the Sunday train passed out of hearing, on its way to the church reservation in Ancon, where the fighting Parson prays and also plays ball, the engineer blew his whistle, I hope, to warn track-walkers and not out of sheer animal spirits. Be this as it may, the whistle rang and re-echoed shrilly through the cut and right under my eyes, and at my feet, which were soon covered with a little avalanche of sand, the "slide" began. First a mere thread of sand it was, then a rivulet of bulkier mass, soon a rock or two was drawn into the current, and a minute later I jumped none too soon to escape a great boulder, which, bereft of its underpinning, came suddenly crashing down into the lower level.

The beginning of a "slide."

In five minutes there was work, and plenty, for a steam shovel or two, and before evening the new slide had swept away a railway siding, buried a steam shovel so deep that it would have to be dug out, and set back the work of those dauntless men, who had determined to see the thing through, by many a weary back-breaking day.

I fled this slide only to stumble into another. Overhead now the baseball game was waxing hot, the "Kangaroos" had gotten on to the twirl of the new pitcher from Colon and were batting him all over the field. A tremendous hit resounded down the "cut" from the far-away field, a loud hurrah "Go to second! Come home!" from the excited fans, and suddenly, again at my side, there sprang into being another slide. A little rivulet of restless earth seeking repose, which did not subside for an hour or more, by which time it had deposited some twenty tons or more of indurated clay into Uncle Sam's ditch, and by so much added to the engineers' cares and the taxpayers' burden.

A little further on, and the earth grew suddenly strangely hot under foot. I looked down and it seemed to me I was walking upon smoldering coals or upon a bed of peat burnt into many colors. I had stumbled upon that curious phenomenon which the negroes from Barbados and Jamaica reported to their bosses, a few days before, as "hell hole" or hell "Hell hole."

gate. Many of the newspapers took it up, and a large section of the European Press was convinced, cable-graphically I suppose, that we had unearthed an awakening volcano in the very track of our four-hundred-million-dollar waterway. Indeed, I do not blame the European brethren if they reported what they actually saw. I myself have seen half a dozen volcanoes in Java (lady's volcanoes the Dutch call them, from their gentle ways and the fact that they can easily be visited by the most Chinese-footed of the fair sex), which did not look so volcanic to the untutored and unscientific eye. At all events, on this day all the ground about was either aflame or a-smoking, and, here and there, the earth had been burnt into heaps of rubbish, which had taken on strange fantastic colors. Whatever it may be, and I personally had not the ghost of a notion, this is not ordinary pay-dirt. But already men, keen-eyed deep-delving geologists from whom Mother Earth cannot conceal her secrets, have brushed away the superstition of the negroes and the theories of the half-baked scientists. It is not the gate to hell, and it is not a destruction-breeding volcano we are face to face with, but an interesting phenomenon, which wise men from all over the world are hastening to see. I confess that the feature of it that I find most interesting, is that the phenomenon has proved helpful rather than hurtful to the work of excavation.

The ground aflame.

It happened in this wise, say the geologists. A steam shovel or a blast, destroying better than it knew, brought to view and exposed to the burning rays of the overhead tropical sun, a great deposit of iron pyrites. A slow fire by combustion or from the blast was the result, to which a nearby lying bed of free lime contributed further fuel; to-day the fire smolders in a bed of lignite, and as nothing is easier to remove than ashes, strict orders have been given to watch the fire, but by no means to put it out; already many hundred yards of what would have been, but for this happy accident and the glowing kiss of the sun, stubborn spoils, have been incinerated and this cross-section of burnt-out earth displays more dissolving colors than ever did Joseph's coat. Only steam-shovel man No. 5011 is disappointed, for when the "volcano" was first reported he offered Colonel Goethals to dig it out "by the roots" with his great machine.

One hundred yards farther on another phenomenon is staged. It is not visible, however, to the naked eye, unless the eye has the insight of imagination, but it is none the less real, and none the less formidable for all that. We have reached the bottom of the chasm as it yawns to-day. Here the eighty-five-foot level, the future level of the canal, has been reached and indeed surpassed, the extra depth being needed, it is said, for a temporary or emergency drainage canal. And perhaps here the

The bottom of the chasm.

hole has been dug deep as an object lesson of what is yet to come all along the line. In other words, it is a reconnaissance in force to the bottom of the "cut." Here even the most thoughtless and unscientific toiler can get the measure of the work that still awaits us and gird up his loins for the mighty sustained efforts that will yet be required of him.

The truth and the correctness of the level reached in this place was ascertained by the most scientific instruments and substantially corroborated by half a dozen others, including the rule of thumb for which most foremen of working gangs have such a strong partiality. But a day or two later the place did not look right. Some with the insight of imagination in their vision said the ground had risen over night, and boldly asserted that they saw it rise while they stood there! When the measuring instruments were brought, science confirmed the imaginative point of view. The bottom of the canal channel had risen a foot in forty-eight hours, and worse luck! was still rising! A feeling of superstitious awe now possessed some of the men of this particular working gang. Here was indeed no end of a job! Here was an endless chain of excavations! A prey to superstitious fears and powerless to continue on the job, some of the Spaniards here engaged—here where they had made an enviable record for endurance and steadiness, second to no men whether white or black—

Rising of the bottom of the channel.

had to be transferred to less fantastic fields of labor, and the matter-of-fact steam-shovel men were called in by the equally unemotional engineers. The ditch was dug out again "deep and plenty," as the steam-shovelers say, and again it filled out and welled up to its former level.

"Deep and plenty."

Then the wise men, responsible for the construction of the world's eighth wonder, put on their thinking caps and found a very natural, if regrettable, explanation of the extraordinary occurrence. The rise of the soil in the "cut," and indeed in the bottom of the future waterway in many other places, was caused by the weight of the banks which remained and the lateral pressure which they exerted.* Where the height and consequently the weight of the adjacent bank has been reduced, the alarming bulge ceases and the bed of the canal stays dug. Still this topping of the side crests or embankments in many places is costing another pretty penny.

It is well to bear this in mind and also to remember that when you look into the totals of the "cut," the tale is not so tragic as are some of the details. Barring a catastrophe, the "cut" will be completed early in 1913, nine months from now, and thanks to the unforeseen slides we will then have excavated twenty

Completion of canal in 1913.

* Observers are losing faith in the "angle of repose" doctrine and the "slides" are assigned by many to the same causes which are given here for the rising of the soil.

million cubic yards more than we bargained for. Fortunately, however, the cost price of the excavation that we did foresee has been so much smaller than we had any reason to hope it would be, that though we will have dug twenty million cubic yards more than we counted upon, the work is still within, and well within, the estimated cost.

Work eighty per cent completed.

In so far as it is permitted to the human finite eye to spy into the future to-day, this the greatest work of man since his activities began is eighty per cent. completed. To-day some of the great water-gates through which the argosies of the future are to pass into the south and eastern seas are completed and ajar, the lighthouses at either entrance and the range lights within, so many beckoning beacons, flash out their invitation, calling attention, like so many gigantic electric signs, to the new route of commerce soon to be thrown open to the world. In the lake reservoir the precious indispensable water is rising nearly an inch a day, and the "cut" section of the work is only dry because of a slender strip of earth or dike, at Matachin, a strip of earth which a steam-shovel could devour in less than half a day.

To-day, for the first time in eight years, the undoubted progress of the great work is apparent. Up to now progress was a matter for cold, careful scientific calculation, to-day it is a matter of ocular demonstration. Formerly you could, of course, see the dirt fly, but the

plot was so carefully concealed that the good of the flying dirt was really a matter of faith. To-day, however, not only is eighty per cent. of the work completed, but the end is in sight. The canal has taken shape and the purposeful co-ordination of all the detached works and isolated workers jumps to the eye of the most short-sighted tourist. Hardly a week passes without "finished" being written upon some important fraction of the work.

Barring some great and unforeseen catastrophe, all the masonry and the concrete will be completed by January 1, 1913. By July, next year, the air- and water-tight gates, which are to hold and control the floods of the Chagres, will be ready to perform their vital functions in the working of the canal. Three gates are already completed and, in operation, have been subjected to severe tests. Indeed, by this date, July, 1913, the whole canal proper should be completed and there is every reason to believe it will be. The terminals may not be ready, and the back-filling of these gigantic concrete castles, which the engineers call locks may lag behind, but all these ragged edges will have been gathered up and smoothed out long before the date of the official opening in 1915. To-day the railway yards at Balboa are being transferred to make room for the permanent dry-dock and basin on the Pacific side. It is to be hoped that this is the last transfer of this vagrant railway, which, though it en-

Permanent dry dock on Pacific Coast.

joys the shortest route across the continent, has had its roadbed changed so frequently that if all the construction work on the Panama line had been permanent it would reach from the Isthmus to Patagonia, and form one of the longest railways in the world.

The dry-dock will be a thousand feet long and the first terminal pier, which is now well under way, will have the same length and be about two hundred feet wide. The two great coaling stations, one at Cristobal on the Atlantic, and the other at Balboa on the Pacific, will be ready for their grimy work some time before they will be needed. The lake is filling, and the water will be permitted to rise until the fifty-foot level is reached. At this level in the lake the "cut" and the locks will still remain high and dry until July, 1913, when, if all goes well, the great deluge will be inaugurated, as quietly as possible, of course. There will be a dramatic moment, doubtless, when the steam-shovels eat away the earthwork at Matachin, and the water rushes into the "cut" and the lower levels which it has cost so much hitherto to keep dry. But engineers shun drama, and the water rush will be contrived, as quietly as possible, probably by sluices. What will be the actual status of the waterway after this critical moment is passed, no one can say with precision, but it is hoped, and it is quite possible, that in a very few weeks sea-going dredges will

Preparations for the opening.

have dug out many of the remaining shoal places and that, from this time on, freighters of medium tonnage will accomplish the transit of the Isthmus without difficulty.

The Atlantic side breakwater, stretching far out into Limon Bay, affording the ships from the North Atlantic and the oft-vexed Caribbean a safe and smooth refuge, is practically finished, and the mammoth breakwater on the Pacific side, from Balboa out to Naos Island, nearly, if not quite, three miles long, is, thanks to the spoils from the Culebra cut, growing into an ocean promontory with marvelous rapidity.

A wonderfully safe harbor is the result, and some think an ideal naval base, until the dawn of the day when all that sort of thing can be thrown away into the rubbish heap.

The permanent organization.

None too soon are Congress and the Press occupying themselves with the important details of the permanent organization and government of the canal, for unless all signs should prove deceptive and the hopes of conservative observers prove unfounded, in the early winter of 1913, while the canal may yet be far from completed, as it is proposed to build it, yet the two oceans, long asunder, will be joined by a gated waterway, freighters will be passing through, and the conquest of the centuries, a dream of four centuries at least, will have become an accomplished fact, and

soon, very soon, merely a humdrum milestone in the path of man's progress.

Along the way which the old navigators dreamed of and knew must be achieved, the new navigators will penetrate the South Seas and the search for the western route to the Far East, which shaped history and, incidentally, peopled the Americas, will have ended. But the new lands, which the new route makes accessible and even brings near to our main traveled roads, are lands which the old navigators never dreamed of, and here, it seems to me, is the place to dwell upon the epoch-making feature of our work, that triumph of sanitation which has made the construction of the canal and residence on the Isthmus not only possible, but even pleasant.

The triumph of sanitation.

The far-reaching effects of this successful sanitary campaign cannot be over-estimated, indeed, I fear, with our old-fashioned ideas, which sad experience has instilled into our minds of how costly, in human lives, was the conquest of the tropics, when attempted by the individual, we cannot estimate it at all. But let us, at least, recall that, had the canal been completed twenty years ago, people would still have passed through it with bated breath and grave anxiety, some, indeed, with medicated handkerchiefs before their nostrils. It is certain that the transit of the Isthmus was then regarded as an exceedingly dangerous and unpleasant stage in the journey to the

promised lands beyond. To-day, however, thanks to the new science of sanitation and its apostles, who have risen from the ranks in our army medical corps, the promised lands lie near at hand, and those who seek them are not scourged by pest and pestilence. I have had the honor and the advantage of talking upon this momentous subject on several occasions with Colonel Gorgas, the man, who, despite his many modest protests, has contributed to this proud result more than any other man. He is of the opinion that the conquest of the tropics has been attained, and that, in consequence, vast economic changes are impending. He believes firmly that within a period of time, long indeed, when viewed from the standpoint of a man's life, but short enough when compared with the other historical epochs of the world, in a near future, as history marks its periods, the centres of population and the most flourishing civilization will be found dwelling and flourishing within the confines of those very lands so long shunned, at least so far as our race is concerned, by all save the adventurer and the outcast. Colonel Gorgas, with characteristic modesty, in a recent address to a medical society, put his claim and his prophecy in the following simple words:

The conquest of the tropics attained.

"We, therefore, believe that sanitary work on the Isthmus will demonstrate to the world that the white man can live and work in any

part of the tropics and maintain good health, and that the settling of the tropics, by the Caucasian, will date from the completion of the Panama Canal."

The conquest of the Isthmus.

In a word, there is much reason to believe that the conquest of the Isthmus will not merely bring the Caribbean countries, so long sidetracked, upon the centre of the stage, and exert a far-reaching influence upon the world's channels of commerce and transportation routes. Clearly, on the day now so near, when the water-gates of Panama shall be thrown wide open and the Atlantic and the Pacific joined by the genius and the industry of man, there will be revealed to the least observant eye the dawn of a new and most interesting era in the progress of our race.

In the conclusion of the canal, the future historian will doubtless see the point of departure for economic and sociological chances and developments, which it would be folly to attempt to outline here and now. The sanitation of the Isthmus, the making healthy that plague-spot, famous during four centuries as a barrier and a scourge to civilization, is but the first victory in a campaign for the fuller utilization of the riches of the tropics, from the enjoyment of which men of our race have, hitherto, been excluded or only enjoyed while taking fearful risks and paying a heavy tribute of valuable lives.

THE TALLEST BUILDING IN THE WORLD*

(A.D. 1912)

THE most conspicuous object of the ever-changing skyline of the city of New York is the giant Woolworth Building which towers many stories above the other famous high buildings of the metropolis and which commands an almost unequalled view.

It is the apex of the man-made mountains of stone, brick, and steel which demonstrates to the whole world that for ingenuity, daring, and effectiveness the American architects and engineers are far ahead of the master builders of this or any other age.

Requirements of the architect.

Some idea of what was required of the architect may be had from the statement that 24,000 tons of steel were used in the construction of the Woolworth Building. This steel had to be brought to the building site practically on the minute—so it could be put in the

* The year 1912 has also seen the launching of the hugest ship afloat, the S. S. *Imperator*, which was christened by Kaiser Wilhelm II. on May 23d in the Vulcan Yards at Hamburg. The length of this giant ship exceeds the height of the Woolworth Building by 150 feet; its width equals that of the broadest roadways, and her nine decks tower to the height of a great apartment house. The *Imperator* is 919 feet long, 98 feet beam, 62 feet deep. On her maiden voyage, arriving June 18, 1913, she made the passage from Cherbourg to New York in 6 days, 5 hours, and 12 minutes.

designed place—as it was impossible to store the material in the busy streets about the building. Even to place such an immense quantity of steel beams and girders in an open space upon the ground is a great undertaking, but to handle it in rapid-fire order, and rivet it into place, beginning forty feet below the surface of the street and attaining a height of 780 above the curb, is a stupendous proposition. Twenty-four thousand tons of steel—sufficient to construct the Third Avenue Elevated Railroad structure from the City Hall north to the Harlem River at 129th Street—placed on a lot 152′x197′ inside of ten months—is a wonderful accomplishment.

17,000,000 bricks used.

Seventeen million bricks were used in the construction—enough bricks to pave a roadway thirty feet in width from the Woolworth Building to West 250th Street. The 80,000 electric bulbs from the 13,500 electric light outlets in the building strung less than three feet apart, would light the entire forty miles of water-front around Manhattan Island. There are eighty-seven miles of electric wiring; sufficient to extend from New York to Philadelphia, and the six huge 2,500 horse-power boilers, if harnessed together, could lift 100 times the weight of the Statue of Liberty. The building has a total weight of 206 million pounds at the caissons. It is figured that this immense weight is increased at times by wind pressure by 40,000,000 pounds. The building

is designed to withstand a wind pressure of 250 miles an hour.

The Woolworth Building reaches a height of 780 feet above the sidewalk. Its sub-basement floor is 37.6 feet below the level of the street, and the concrete and steel caissons upon which it rests extend to bed rock, 130 feet below the surface. No other building since the creation has reached such a height as 910 feet, which is the extreme height of the Woolworth Building from where it sets on bed rock to the top of the tower. The Eiffel Tower alone exceeds it in height, but the Eiffel Tower is not a building.

Higher than Tower of Babel.

The Tower of Babel—scientists tell us—reached a height of about 680 feet before the builders got mixed in their tongues and gave it up. The chances are the tower never reached anywhere near such a height, and there are probably more different languages spoken within a mile of the Woolworth Tower than were heard in Babel.

The Woolworth Tower is 86 feet by 84 feet and 55 stories high; the roof of the main building is 385 feet above the street. It is 29 stories in height and its cubical contents are 13,200,000 cubic feet, covering a lot approximately 152 feet by 197 feet. The building contains 27 acres of rentable office space, and about 13 acres more is taken up with the elevators and corridors.

There is a battery of 28 elevators, which if

put end to end would extend two miles—a round trip in each of the elevators will be equal to a four-mile ride, all within the building.

Some other figures which give an idea of the work involved for the architect to plan the building are: Over 43 miles of plumbing pipes, 53,000 pounds of bronze and iron hardware, 3,000 hollow steel doors, 12 miles of marble trim, 12 miles of slate base, 383,325 pounds of red lead, 50,000 cubic yards of sand, and 15,000 cubic yards of broken stone, 7,500 tons of exterior architectural terra cotta—the most complicated architectural terra cotta in the world—2,000,000 square feet or 28,000 tons of hollow tile, 1,050,000 square feet or 28,000 tons of terra-cotta partitions and firing. These combine to make the Woolworth Building absolutely fireproof, as there was no wood used in its construction, the doors, partitions, and trim being of steel, terra cotta and wire glass.

The amount of glass used.

There are over 3,000 exterior windows; the glass used in them would cover nearly one and a half acres, or half of Union Square, and there is almost again as much glass used in the interior of the building.

It is estimated that the Woolworth Building will have from 7,000 to 10,000 tenants of its own, and in addition to being the tallest building in the world, it will enjoy still another distinction. It is the largest building

ever erected by an individual, and when it is completed it will have cost $13,500,000, and be free and clear of debt.

Wonderful view from tower.

The view from the top of the Woolworth tower is without question the most remarkable if not the most wonderful in the world.

The scenic and color effects with the sun shining on the multi-colored buildings, and on the water and land for thirty-five or forty miles in all directions, is a picture impossible of adequate description. You get a view of the giant buildings, volcanoes of human energy, that make even the great mountains of the Far West seem small in comparison, and when one thinks that instead of gazing upon unpopulated, even if remarkably beautiful mountains and valleys as those of the Grand Cañon, he is overlooking the homes, the playgrounds, and the workshops of seven million fellow human beings, the feeling grows upon you that, marvellous as were the upheaval and contortions of nature which formed the mountains and valleys, equally wonderful have been the development and evolution of the brains and handiwork of man, which not only conceived the possibility of such a building as the Woolworth, but carried out the conception to realization.

NEW YORK'S GREATER SUBWAY

(A.D. 1912)

KATHARINE WHIPPLE STRONG

NEW YORK houses on comparatively insignificant plots of land the populations of good-sized towns that range from five to nine thousand or more. The amount of concentrated human energy contained within one of these sky-scrapers is enormous, the amount contained within a block is appalling, and when these great steel cities within a city, in the hours from five to seven o'clock in the evening, send forth that multitudinous energy to its scattered homes, the result is beyond words. At the lower end of Manhattan, tides upon tides of humanity, numbering into the hundreds of thousands, stream from the great buildings, filling the pavements, the streets, and covering the parks in a mighty rush towards Brooklyn Bridge, the subways, the elevated, and every available means of transit. Thus the Island of Manhattan, long and narrow, with its lines of traffic running north and south is slowly revolving the problem of how it shall rush a million people to their homes at night and return them to their work between the hours of six and nine

The Problem.

the next morning. The question has not been a simple one, but is one filled with immense difficulties.

Within a few years New York promises to take rank as the largest city in the world. In 1910 its population had nearly doubled over the preceding decade. During that year the city's transportation lines carried 1,531,263,000, against 846,353,000 in 1900. Naturally the city traffic accommodations fell hopelessly short under this astonishing rate of increase, and the total inadequacy of the present transportation system became a positive menace. It is this fact that the city is now fully awake to, for not only is New York growing at an immense rate, but a large portion of its daily population is contributed from the ever-increasing districts beyond the waters of the Hudson, East, and North Rivers.

Accommodations hopelessly short.

Five sets of tunnels, three under the North River to New Jersey, and two under the East River to Long Island, with four bridges—the Brooklyn, Manhattan, Queensboro, and Williamsburgh—span the rivers and make accessible commuters' homes. It is a strange fact, and one well illustrating the rapid growth of the city, that these should now prove congested, although they accommodate a public that not so very long ago were dependent solely on the old ferries.

Supplementing the tunnels and bridges, the present subway runs through Brooklyn from

Atlantic and Flatbush Avenues, under the East River and along Manhattan up to 96th Street, where it branches, one line extending into the Bronx as far as 180th Street or Bronx Park, and the other line along Broadway out to 242d Street or Van Cortlandt Park. In addition to this, three elevated lines also traverse Manhattan from its southernmost point, one line extending as far as 155th Street and another into the northern part of Bronx Park, yet all these, with the network of large surface cars, are unable to cope with the vast home-coming crowds at night.

The subway.

Beyond question, the best and most used system of transportation is the city's subway, and almost since its completion discussions as to its enlargements have been rife. Originally built to carry 400,000 passengers, at present it finds itself called upon to frequently transport over a million people per day.

Whoever has seen, between the hours of five and seven in the afternoons during week days, the city's great army of workers swarm through the streets from east, west, north, and south, to the subway entrances, gains but a vague idea of the real conditions that prevail. To fully appreciate the appalling congestion that exists, one must go below, into the packed, surging mass of humanity on the station platforms, where the mercury rises ten degrees, and where arriving trains only tend to loosen

a little the almost immovable blocks of men and women that fight for an even greater congestion in the stifling cars. More than one casualty is laid to the subway. Once within the train an exit is as difficult to effect as an entrance was to gain. Women are in this struggle, and little children; and night after night, girls who have stood for nearly nine hours behind a counter, stand for another hour clinging to a strap. The number of people unaccommodated by seats in a year would reach well into the hundreds of thousands.

Thus, from the city's realization of its need, the great Dual System of Rapid Transit was born to solve the acute problem of extending street railway systems, and to provide generously for the city's future needs. Five years will see this great $300,000,000 Dual System completed in all its parts, with the present traffic facilities more than trebled. For although the immediate need will not be nearly so great, the new system will have a yearly capacity of accommodating comfortably upwards of 3,000,000,000. This is a large improvement over the present system which, during 1911, was called upon to carry 798,281,850, and this under circumstances that do not suggest pleasant riding. Dual System.

The existing subway, extending from the business centre of Brooklyn under the river, consists of 26 miles of road or 73 miles of sin-

gle track, and these, when across the river, run up Manhattan on the east side as far as 42d Street. Then it becomes a west-side line for the rest of its course. Under the Dual System, extensions are to be made to this subway both north and south of 42d Street, so that, when completed, the subway will have two complete north and south lines, runing up and down the east and west sides of Manhattan. Both of these extensions will be four-track subways, so that both local and express service can be maintained. This, the most important extension, so far as the island of Manhattan is concerned, gives only a slight idea of the mammoth undertaking in progress, for throughout Greater New York the extensions are in proportion to this, and will "form the basis for the development of the city for generations to come," as well as give immediate relief to the present intolerable conditions.

Four-track extensions.

Important additions and extensions are also to be provided for the elevated lines under the Dual System, in Manhattan and the Bronx. These, namely the Second, Third, and Ninth Avenue roads, are mainly two-track lines, but as third tracks on the elevated are needed for express-train service, it is proposed to make all three elevated roads three-track lines. These, with the reconstruction into a four-track bridge of the one across the Harlem River carrying the Third Avenue Elevated tracks,

together with many other extensions and junctions, will add greatly to the existing trackage of the Manhattan Elevated System. The total elevated mileage in Manhattan and the Bronx is 88 miles of single track, which, with the proposed additions under the Dual System, will be expanded to 139 miles.

New subways, and subway and elevated extensions in Brooklyn, will be made in the same degree as in the other boroughs, and the new Steinway tunnel under the East River will be extended on both sides of the river and operated as a part of the subway.

It is hard from these bare outlines to form an adequate appreciation to what vast extent the city's existing lines will be increased by the new additions and extensions, or of the amount of new residential territory that will be opened up and made easily accessible to the would-be suburbanite. The combined trackage of the existing lines amounts to 303 miles of single track. To this will be added, by the new lines of the Dual System, 334 miles of single track, making a new system with 637 miles of single track.

Combined trackage.

Any new undertaking, major or minor, is, to some degree, speculative and experimental, a stepping-stone to something better. The existing New York subway has been no exception to the rule, and, being the first underground railroad ever operated in New York, it was

inevitable that some features should present themselves on which it was possible for engineers to base future improvements. Thus, the new Dual System will show itself to have profited immensely over the old lines in many details. To begin with, the ventilation of the present road has always been poor in the extreme. Much stirring up of air there has been, caused by the constant rush of trains, but with little renewal of fresh air. This fact has caused the transit company large sums of money in more or less unsuccessful efforts to provide good ventilation, the absence of which is accounted for by the wide-open space admitting of four tracks abreast, which prevails with few exceptions throughout the length of the line. The construction of the new subway with separate tunnels for each train will, it is believed, greatly improve the ventilation. The passage of the trains through these smaller enclosures will produce a piston action, thus driving the air out ahead of them and causing an inrush of fresh air by suction from the rear. Archways will be placed in the partition wall at stated distances, to which laborers may retire for safety while a train passes by.

Ventilation to be greatly improved.

Next to the question of ventilation is that of the temperature, the height of which renders the air doubly heavy in winter, and which in summer becomes intolerable. This is caused principally by the electric motors underneath

the cars, and by the friction of brake shoes on wheels and wheels on tracks. Of course it will be hard to totally eliminate this discomfort, which will, to a great degree, be mitigated by fresh ventilation, but it is thought that by the use of less waterproofing which encloses almost entirely the existing subway, more heat will escape than is at present possible. This waterproofing is made up of layers of woven fabric and asphalt and brick laid in asphalt, and the only use that will be made of it in the new subway will be where it is absolutely necessary to keep out water—principally under the roof, along the sides of the tunnel where the road runs below water level, and under the floor of the subway.

New subways larger than old one.

All the new subways will be larger than the first one, and in some cases the difference will be considerable. The old subway has a height of twelve feet ten inches above the base of the rail, and has a width of about twelve feet six inches for each track. The Brooklyn Rapid Transit subways will have a maximum height of fifteen feet above the base of the rail, and a width of fourteen feet for each track, with a minimum height of thirteen feet two inches, and a minimum width of thirteen feet six inches. While the frame-work of the subways will be of steel, the walls and partitions will be of reinforced concrete, which material will be used extensively in the construction. It is

very strong; in fact, so strong that at one point in Brooklyn where the Fourth Avenue subway passes under the existing subway, the latter rests entirely upon the roof of the former.

Double-decked subways.

Double-decked subways are another innovation. These have been used extensively by the company along Lexington Avenue, which is narrow. Here it seemed more economical to build the express tracks on one level and the local on another, thus avoiding the expense of encroaching on the private property either side, as would have been the case in building four tracks abreast. The station platforms will not only be larger than those that were first built—which latter subsequently had to be enlarged, thus costing the city $1,500,000—but they are going to be located on straight stretches of track, and, as far as possible, sharp curves will be avoided on all lines. This will be a great improvement over some of the existing platforms that are built on curves, which not only cause undesirable conditions when trains are loading and unloading, but also necessitate all trains approaching to slow down to avoid danger, although the curved stations are provided with an excellent signal system. The new station platforms will be built to receive ten-car express and six-car local trains.

Under the Harlem and East rivers, in the new tunnels, footpaths are to be provided, to

be used in case of accident or when a train is stalled, and should it become necessary to unload it where it stands, passengers may leave it and walk with safety out of the tunnel.

For the first time in New York, the city's elevated structures will aspire to artistic effect and less noise. In Berlin the "elevateds" are objects of beauty, which is a far cry from the unsightly structures with their thundering trains that now grace Sixth Avenue. But in certain places, like the Queens Boulevard in Queens Borough, where the city authorities are striving for beauty effects in street construction, the elevated structure will be of ornamental design.

Old Beach Pneumatic Tunnel.

An interesting episode in connection with the excavations has been the uncovering in Broadway of the Old Beach Pneumatic Tunnel, which was built for underground purposes way back in the early seventies, and which was designed for cylindrical cars that were to be propelled by air pressure applied from the outside. Very much a failure, and very much of a curiosity, it was operated for a short time by the company which, after many vicissitudes, finally abandoned it. For forty years the old relic lay in oblivion, under the turmoil of Broadway, until the modern contractors broke in upon and removed it.

Not only is the greater subway to prove of untold relief to unnumbered thousands, but its

wide effect on rents, on the congestion of population, and the future development of the immigrant problem would prove a study in itself. The very future of the city in this respect depends on larger transportation facilities. With crowded tenements come higher rents, with higher rents comes congestion of immigrant quarters in the effort to "accommodate" lodgers and thus decrease expenses—and with congestion come low morals and disease, of which the greatest menace is the Great White Plague.

Quick transit.

Thus the subway will offer to the laborer a quick five-cent ride from his work to a home which, if he chooses, can be where the air is as pure and the winds as free as those in any country side. Should such a result as the liquidation of the tenement districts come to pass, by enabling the laborer to live further from his work yet reach it just as quickly through improved means, half the purpose of the subway will have been accomplished, with a consequent fall in tenement rents, and a proportional rise in tenement conditions.

THE WORLD'S GREATEST AQUEDUCT

(A.D. 1912)

KATHARINE WHIPPLE STRONG

THE great Catskill Aqueduct, that dwarfs the mightiest efforts of the Romans, and rivals in point of engineering feats the national undertakings of the Suez and Panama canals, is at last nearing its completion. Indeed, while costing the city of New York as much as was originally appropriated by the United States for the construction of the Panama Canal, this great municipal undertaking has presented unprecedented problems to the engineer—obstacles to be overcome, and questions to be answered that have been unknown in the digging on the isthmus. But, as always, man's ingenuity has found a way, and before long, up and down, across hills and deep valleys, through masses of seemingly unyielding rock, with the mighty plunge of a thousand feet under the Hudson River and another of hundreds of feet under the East River to Brooklyn, the gigantic stream will wind itself to New York's thirsty millions. When this is accomplished, the fresh, pure soft mountain waters from the Catskill heights, fed by rains

Its cost.

and melting snows, will flow through miles upon miles of circuit pipes below the city's streets.

Figures dazzle, the mind is baffled in an attempt to adequately grasp by numerals this mammoth undertaking. The brain fails to grip the extent of such a work. It is the greatest municipal enterprise in history, and its permanent concrete strength will outlast the centuries.

Reason for its construction.

The reasons that led to the establishment of the Catskill Aqueduct were adequate enough. In 1895 a city of four million inhabitants had practically reached the limits of its resources for water. That city, the city of New York, is growing at such a rate that each two years it takes unto itself the population of an Albany, a Bridgeport, a New Haven, or a Grand Rapids. Every five years it gains in size the equivalent of a Boston, a Cleveland, or a Baltimore. Naturally it was long ago recognized that to keep pace with this growth of approximately 125,000 per year, the increase of the city's water supply system would be inevitable.

Back in 1896 the subject was first taken up by the Manufacturers' Association of Brooklyn, and, in 1899, Comptroller Coler caused an investigation of all the available sources of supply to be made by John R. Freeman, Consulting Engineer. In 1901, in the wake of all the agitation caused by the Manufacturers'

Association, a bill was introduced in the Legislature that had for its object the creation of a commission empowered to add to the water-supply of the city, which resulted in 1902 in the appointment of the Burr-Herring-Freeman Commission to investigate the question.

To Ex-Mayor George B. McClellan belongs the honor of having finally, in 1905, secured the passage of the water bill through the Legislature, which empowered him to appoint the Board of Water Supply, thus inaugurating the Catskill Aqueduct.

The first Commissioners.

This board of three commissioners, consisting of J. Edward Simmons, Charles N. Chadwick, and Charles A. Shaw, found themselves confronted by a large and involved problem. Many administrations had volunteered their aid towards its solution; report after report had gone to increase the volume of knowledge they possessed; much wisdom and encyclopedic information had been evolved, only to leave before them the gigantic task of reducing that knowledge to practice—of determining on the sources from which that vast amount of water was to be taken. In October, 1905, they submitted for approval a plan for obtaining from the Esopus, Rondout, Schoharie, and Catskill creeks a supply of not less than 500,000,000 gallons of water daily at an estimated cost of $161,857,000. On May 14, 1906, the approval of the State Water Supply

Commission was granted, and in less than six months later the first construction contract for eleven miles of aqueduct was let. The scheme of 1905, not having included the delivery of water to Manhattan, Queens, or the Bronx, a plan for the delivery of Catskill water to all of the boroughs of the city was first approved on December 10, 1909, and again, after exhaustive investigation, on July 1, 1910. This increased the estimated cost of the undertaking by $15,000,000. The project of developing the mountain sources of the Catskills covers the watersheds of the Esopus, Rondout, Schoharie, and the Catskill creeks, any two of which, in connection with the Esopus, are capable of delivering 500,000,000 gallons of water daily. At the present time it is contemplated to deliver only the Esopus watershed, which will make available 250,000,000 gallons daily. This procedure necessitates the building of the Ashokan collecting reservoir and the main aqueduct, which is ninety-two miles long, connecting with Hill View reservoir in Yonkers at the northern boundary of the city, and which is of a size through which a railroad train might pass with ease. Every foot of this distance is now under contract, and work along all the line has progressed with such favorable rapidity that, if the past rate of progress is maintained, it is reasonable to expect that the aqueduct will be ready for use

The Ashokan reservoir.

within the very near future. By reason of the high level of this Catskill supply, water will be furnished to the top floor of twenty-story buildings in lower Manhattan, thus affecting an annual saving of $2,000,000 in pumping alone.

The total area of all the watersheds to be developed in the future is over nine hundred square miles, and their combined supply, when fully developed, will exceed 800,000,000 gallons daily.

Seven villages wiped out.

Seven villages with a permanent population of 2,000 in 1905 are being wiped out and submerged under the mighty Ashokan reservoir, whose capacity is to be 130,000,000,000 gallons. Twelve miles long, and two wide, it lies about fourteen miles west of the Hudson at Kingston, and is now being built at an expenditure of nearly $14,000,000. The Olive Bridge dam, across Esopus Creek, the Beaver Kill and Hurley dikes, across smaller streams and gaps between the hills, form the natural walls of the reservoir. These, with the dividing dikes and weir which separate the reservoir into two basins, and the waste weir over which rushing flood waters may safely be discharged, are the principal structures, a description of which gives but little idea of the vast size of this artificial lake. It is an interesting fact that the water which the Ashokan will hold would cover all Manhattan Is-

land to a depth of twenty-eight feet, and the area of its surface is equal to that of all Manhattan below 116th Street.

It is a far cry from the Ashokan reservoir situated up in the foothills of the Catskills to Richmond Borough, surrounded by tidal waters at the lower end of New York Bay. Just one hundred and twenty-seven miles of rolling sunlit hills, smiling valleys dotted with villages, rocky glacial gorges, and deep rivers are to be traversed and dived under by an aqueduct and pipe-lines before the delivery of water may be made effective. All this path of beauty must perform its part in the big game being played with nature.

Distance to Greater New York.

The acquiring of property, which involves the removal of villages, churches, schools, and homes, the relocation of highways and railroads, and the investigation of thousands of titles, is still another part of the great problem which is being worked out through agreement with owners and by condemnation proceedings. Hundreds of miles of beautiful country have been overrun by topographers and property surveyors. Innumerable are the holes that have been drilled deep into the heart of the earth and through solid rock to determine the best and most economical locations for the great reservoirs, dams, and aqueducts. Numberless samples of soil, sand, gravel, and stone, as well as of rock by core borings, have been

obtained. The data thus secured have been submitted to and passed upon by the most distinguished experts of the country—engineers, geologists, specialists in aeration, in filtration, and in preparation of reservoirs; also by experts in mechanical construction and in the location of railroads and highways. Science has given generously of her best in this gigantic undertaking, where the workers go eating their way into the rocky gorges, showing up the solemn secrets of the Hudson's mysterious depths, burrowing their way through mountains, transplanting railroads and relocating them like toys. Miles upon miles of highway are to be discontinued, and again miles are to be rebuilt. Whole villages have sprung into being like Aladdin's palace of old.

The "camp city."

The largest of these impromptu villages, the "camp city," is located near the Ashokan dam. Here many of the three thousand employees, with their families, find their home. The camp is divided into Italian and negro sections while the Americans live separately, and every means to promote good citizenship and efficiency in the workmen has been employed. Well laid-out streets, plentiful sewerage and water-supply systems, one story wooden dwellings with screens on all the doors and windows, electric lights, telephones, savings bank, hospital, general store, bakery, police and fire protection, schools for children, and even

a kindergarten—all these and much more besides, shown in the spirit of cheer and good fellowship that generally prevails, go to the making of this miniature city. An evening school for men is one of the features of the camp, the eight-hour day giving them plenty of spare time to attend the school where the elements of the English language and of national, state, and city governments are taught. Good food, wholesome water, and a general atmosphere of cleanliness speak for the strict sanitary conditions, enforced for safety in the areas affected by the construction operations.

The Kensico reservoir.

East of the Hudson and about thirty miles from the City Hall, the Kensico reservoir will contain several months' supply of Catskill water. Its capacity will be 40,000,000,000 gallons, and it is now being constructed under contracts that amount to nearly $8,500,000. This will serve as a storage reservoir, so that in case of inspection, cleaning, or accident to the seventy-seven miles of aqueduct between it and Ashokan, the water supply to the city will not be interrupted.

The function of the third great reservoir, the Hill View, situated in Yonkers, will be to equalize the difference between the use of water in the city as it varies from hour to hour and the steady flow in the aqueduct. With its capacity of 900,000,000 gallons, it will also furnish large quantities of water upon imme-

diate demand, as, for instance, in the case of a great conflagration. The contract for its construction was let for $3,270,000.

North of New York City line there are four distinct types of aqueduct in use: the cut-and-cover, the grade tunnel, the pressure tunnel, and the steel-pipe siphon. Four distinct types of aqueduct.

Whenever the water flows at hydraulic grade the aqueduct is being constructed of concrete, of the cut-and-cover type. Large molds of horseshoe shape, seventeen feet high by seventeen feet six inches wide inside, are placed on concrete supports along the line of which travels the concrete pouring machine which completely covers the mold. When this concrete cover is sufficiently hardened the mold is forced along another length and the process is repeated. When completed the whole will be covered by an earth embankment, and in the meantime the concrete tube continues through many weeks to gain in strength and durability.

Where hills or mountains cross the line and it would be impracticable to circumvent them, tunnels at the natural elevation of the aqueduct are driven through them. There are twenty-four of these grade tunnels, aggregating fourteen miles. They, also, are of horseshoe shape, seventeen feet high by about thirteen feet wide, and lined throughout with concrete.

Where it is necessary to cross deep glacial

gorges, circular tunnels have been driven deep into solid rock far below the surface of the ground and lined with thick concrete within which water will flow under pressure. At the northerly end of each pressure tunnel the water will drop down a deep shaft, and at the southerly end will rise again in a similar shaft, thus connecting each pressure tunnel at either extremity with the adjacent portions of the aqueduct.

Steel-pipe siphons are used in valleys where the rock is not sound, or where for other reasons pressure tunnels would be impracticable. These steel pipes are made of plates riveted together, and are nine feet and eleven feet in diameter. They are being lined with two inches of cement mortar, embedded in concrete and covered with an earth embankment. Three pipes are required in each siphon for the full capacity of the aqueduct, but only one is at present being laid.

The tunnel at Storm King Mountain.

The most difficult crossing to be encountered is that under the Hudson at Storm King Mountain, where the river is 2,800 feet wide. While the water is only ninety feet deep, solid rock is not encountered at a less depth than seven hundred feet. As the tunnel passes under the river at a depth of eleven hundred feet, and the natural level of the water in the aqueduct here is about four hundred feet above the river surface, each leg of the inverted siphon

will reach a depth of fifteen hundred feet. This siphon tunnel will be the largest in the world.

From the Hill View Reservoir, fresh Catskill water will be delivered to the five boroughs of New York by a circular tunnel driven through solid rock, reducing in diameter from fifteen feet, to fourteen, thirteen, twelve and eleven feet. From two terminal shafts in Brooklyn steel and iron pipe lines will extend into Queens and Richmond, and a cast-iron pipe, resting on the harbor bottom, will cross the Narrows to the Silver Lake Reservoir on Staten Island, holding 400,000,000 gallons. The total length of this delivery system is over thirty-four miles.

Silver Lake Reservoir.

A remarkable phase of this mammoth undertaking is the almost entire non-interference with streets, buildings, subways, sewers, pipes, or any surface or sub-surface activity whatever. To safeguard this, the tunnel will be pierced at depths of 200 to 750 feet below the street surface. It is necessary also that these depths should be maintained to secure a strong enough rock covering to withstand the bursting pressure of the water. The tunnel, concrete lined, will be constructed from shafts located in parks and other places where they will interfere least with the traffic. Through these shafts also the water will be delivered into existing pipes, while here and there, for

purposes of purifying, aeration fountains will send their graceful jets high into the windy sunlight, their beauty rivaling their beneficial results.

The only work visible to the pedestrian will be at the shafts from which, one to another at varying depths, the tunnel passes for its whole length under streets, parks, and rivers.

If—to repeat a well-worn if—our streets were paved with glass! With what wondering awe we would peer down through the vast complexity of cables, gas mains, electric cables, and the thousands of telephone wires in their conduits, deeper still, down far beneath, to where lies hidden away from the ear and eye, under the throbbing heart of a city, the mysterious way that is being prepared for the mountain stream!

Thus silently, at least to the great metropolis, steadily, surely, with determined resolution the great project pursues its course. To the inquiring, intelligent, and mentally alert it is a triumph no other city ever saw, a promise of water of crystal cleanliness, mountain freshness that begets health, and of the health that begets the citizenship that ministers to a mighty nation.

The greatest water works any city possesses.

THE PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION OF 1912

(A.D. 1912)

ON NOVEMBER 5, 1912, Governor Woodrow Wilson of New Jersey was elected President of the United States by a Democratic landslide that constituted a total of 429 electoral votes. Never before in this country has a candidate scored such a sweeping victory at the polls which, coming at a time when industrial, commercial, and political discussions are rife, holds out large speculative possibilities for the future of the party.

Number of States carried by Wilson.

Wilson carried every State in the Union except eight, two of which went for Taft, and the other six for Roosevelt. In New York, with a total vote of almost a million and a half, Wilson ran 200,000 ahead of Taft with Roosevelt far in the rear. In New Jersey, of which State Wilson was Governor, he scored an easy victory, although Roosevelt made a good showing. In Pennsylvania, Roosevelt was well in the lead, the Legislature of which State will be controlled by the Progressives. Wilson carried West Virginia by a large majority, as was also the case with Maryland. But in New

England, although it greeted the new party with its usual conservatism, the Progressives made big inroads into popular feeling. Taft won Vermont with only a slight plurality over Roosevelt; New Hampshire went for Wilson, with Taft a close second and Roosevelt very far behind; Maine gave Wilson only a slight plurality over Roosevelt with Taft a heavy loser, while in Massachusetts Wilson gained 170,995, Taft 152,255, and Roosevelt 140,152. The Southern States flocked to the Democratic standard by large majorities. In Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, Arkansas, Missouri, and Texas the Progressives ran high against Taft, while Kentucky and Tennessee gave him a slight plurality over Roosevelt. Wilson carried New Mexico, Arizona, Oklahoma, Kansas, with Roosevelt a close second, Nebraska, with Taft a far third, and Colorado.

Progressive inroads on Republican vote.

In Indiana the Progressives ran second in both National and State tickets, although Wilson carried the State with 272,509, Roosevelt received 158,952, and Taft 150,485. Ohio, Mr. Taft's native State, gave him 312,600 against 446,769 to Wilson and 253,564 to Roosevelt. In a total vote of 1,000,000 in Illinois, Roosevelt ran 65,000 ahead of Taft and only 16,000 behind Wilson. Michigan, Minnesota, and South Dakota went decidedly for

Roosevelt, while California gave him a plurality over Wilson with Taft nowhere in the field. Wilson carried Montana and also South Dakota with Roosevelt second in the latter State. Washington went for Roosevelt with Wilson as second, and Roosevelt ran second in Wilson's capture of Oregon. Iowa gave Wilson a slight plurality over Roosevelt, and Wisconsin was carried by Wilson's 200,000 votes, against Taft's 180,000 and Roosevelt's 85,000.

Wisconsin's vote.

THE CONQUEST OF THE AIR*

(A.D. 1912)

HENRY WOODHOUSE

The stupendous achievement of the age.

THE conquest of the air is conceded to be among the most stupendous achievements of the ages. Human flight opens the sky to man as a new road in which to travel, and because it is a road free of all obstructions and leads everywhere, affording the shortest distance to any other place, it offers to man, in its prospective developed stage, unlimited freedom. The aircraft promises to span continents like railroads, bridging seas like ships, to go over mountains and forests like nothing else except birds, and to swiften and simplify the problems of transportation.

Human flight is the realization of our ancestors' remotest imaginings. The idea of human flight, the wish to imitate birds and rise freely in the air, is, possibly, as old as intellect itself. Its origin cannot be ascertained, all records leading to the time-

*This article was written expressly for The World's Great Events, by Henry Woodhouse, the associate editor of "Flying," the official organ of the Aero Club of America. Mr. Woodhouse is the author of many works on aeronautics, and presents here the first concise authoritative account of the work of the pioneers who have contributed to the Conquest of the Air.—EDITOR.

dimmed age of fable. But the myths and lores of different races tell of winged gods and flying men, and show that for ages to fly was the highest conception of the sublime.

The first type of aircraft to travel through the air was the balloon. Its realization was brought about by Joseph and Stephen Montgolfier, two French brothers, who, in 1783, made and launched a large paper bag inflated with hot air. At about the same time Professor Charles, another Frenchman, launched a balloon filled with hydrogen. Here was the origin of the balloon, commonly known as the passive or free balloon which, having no means of directing its own course, therefore merely drifts with the winds. The balloon used to-day is still very much like the balloon of old, and the six thousand ascensions made yearly in different countries represent but little improvement on the ascensions of a century ago.

The power balloon is the natural development of the free balloon. Experiments to develop a dirigible balloon began soon after the first ascension was made, but it was not until the eighteenth century that any success was obtained. The first ascension with a dirigible balloon was made December 24, 1852, by a Frenchman named Henry Giffard, with a spindle-shaped balloon 143 feet long, 39 feet in diameter, fitted with a three-horse-power

First ascension of a dirigible balloon.

steam engine and an eleven-foot screw propeller. This craft made several short trips under good control, and attained a speed of six miles an hour.

Subsequent notable experimenters were: Charles H. L. Dupuy de Lôme (1870-72); Paul Haenlein (1872); Gaston and Albert Tissandier (1881-1885); Captains Charles and Paul Renard and Krebs (1880-1889); Drs. Woelfert and Schwartz (1896-1899); Albert Santos Dumont (1898-1904). All of these contributed considerably to developing the dirigible balloon, but none succeeded in developing an efficient craft, principally because they lacked suitable motors. That was left to the workers of the twentieth century to achieve.

Three classes of dirigible balloons.

Dirigible balloons are divided into three classes, the rigid, the semi-rigid, and the non-rigid. The rigid has a frame or skeleton of either wood or metal inside of the outer envelope, to stiffen it; the semi-rigid is reinforced by a wire net and exterior metal frame or platform, while the non-rigid is just a bag filled with gas. Up to 1900 the experiments had, with one exception, been made with non-rigid dirigibles. In that year Count Ferdinand von Zeppelin produced the first of the rigid dirigibles bearing his name. Its construction consisted of a frame of aluminum with 17 compartments containing hydrogen

gas to give it its buoyancy; it was 406 feet long, 38 feet in diameter, and had a capacity of 400,000 cubic feet of gas. The first ascension was made on July 2, 1900, on Lake of Constance, Germany. This airship, which was named *Zeppelin I.,* was dismantled in the following spring (1901). A second airship containing many improvements was finished in 1905, and made its first trial on November 30th of that year. Its second trial took place January 16, 1906, and it landed at Kisslegg, the first landing made by a Zeppelin on dry land. The dirigible was destroyed by a storm on the night of January 17-18, 1906, at its first anchorage in the open. Subsequently, between the period 1906 and 1912, ten more airships of this type were constructed and were employed for passenger carrying. The first of the passenger-carrying type was the *Deutschland,* launched in 1910. This dirigible was 485.6 long by 45.93 in diameter, had a gas capacity of 681,600 cubic feet; its power plant consisted of three motors totaling 400 horsepower; its speed was 34 miles an hour. It carried a useful load of four tons. In its first trip, on June 19, 1910, it carried 32 people from Düsseldorf to Dortmund, Germany. This dirigible was wrecked on June 28, 1910, on the Teutoburg forest through being unable to stand a storm, due to the fuel giving out.

The first passenger-carrying type of dirigible balloons.

The latest of the passenger-carrying Zeppelin, the *Viktoria Luise,* was launched in February, 1912. Its size is practically the same as the *Deutschland,* but its power is 450 horsepower, and it attains a speed of 45 miles an hour. Its launching took place at Friedrichshafen in February, 1912; soon after it was put in regular use for cruising, and during the remainder of the year it made hundreds of trips, including some with 40 passengers and some lasting over forty hours.

The semi-rigid and non-rigid types of dirigibles.

The semi-rigid and the non-rigid types of dirigibles also underwent remarkable developments in the period between 1902-1912. The representatives of the semi-rigid have been the *Lebaudy* and *Gross* types, which have been put to extensive use for military services. Among the non-rigid are half a dozen types, including the *Parseval, Astra,* and *Clément-Bayard,* which have proven very successful, some carrying a dozen men for over twenty hours without stopping, and reaching an altitude of over 7,000 feet. America has done very little in this line. In 1910 Walter Wellman attempted to cross the Atlantic with an American-made dirigible; in 1912 Melvin Vaniman constructed another large dirigible with which he intended to cross the Atlantic, but it was destroyed on July 2, 1912, exploding in the air, due to a

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FROM THE BALCONY OF THE PALACE AT TSARSKOE SELO, A RUSSIAN SOLDIER IS ADDRESSING THE THRONG AT A SERVICE FOR THE DEAD IN THE REVOLUTION OF 1917

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faulty pressure valve. At the close of 1912 the dirigibles of the world numbered about fifty.

The aeroplane stands as emblem of the conquest of the air.

The aeroplane more than the dirigible or the balloon stands as the emblem of the conquest of the air. The reasons for this are that dynamic flight is a real conquest of the air, a real victory over the battling elements; and that the aeroplane, or any flying machine that may follow it, brings air travel within the reach of everybody. In their practical development, the dirigible will be the steamship of the air which will render invaluable services of a certain kind, the aeroplane will be the automobile of the air to be used by the multitude for as many purposes as the automobile is being used.

Dynamic flight, although last to be realized, was really the first attempted. Centuries before the lifting power of hot air or gases had been defined, men dreamed of flight by means of wings like bird flight. But, that was hard—well nigh impossible—to realize; for it meant evading or conquering gravity, and it rather seems a fatuous thing even now to think that men should have thought it possible to break the rigid law which holds our world together. It seems as if breaking such law would revolutionize or upset our economic plan.

As has already been pointed out, none of

the experimenters before the seventeenth century succeeded in evolving a theory or method of scientific value; that was still true, where dynamic flight is concerned, at the beginning of the nineteenth century.

The very first step in the science of aviation or dynamic flight was taken by Sir George Cayley, an English inventor, in 1809. He was the first to plan dynamic flight on a scientific basis. With admirable lucidity of mind, this inventor planned an aeroplane complete with slightly oblique planes, resting on a wheeled chassis, fitted with propellers, motor, steering and balancing devices.

Sir George Cayley.

The description of his monoplane together with his plans were published in *Nicholson's Journal* for October, 1809. A month later he wrote about his first model as follows:

"I am engaged in making some farther experiments upon a machine I constructed last summer, large enough for aerial navigation, but which I have not had an opportunity to try the effect of, excepting as to its proper balance and security. It was very beautiful to see this noble white bird sail majestically from the top of a hill to any given point of the plain below it, according to the set of the rudders, merely by its own weight descending in an angle of about 18 degrees with the horizon."

In February, 1810, he writes again about his trials:

"Last year I made a machine, having a surface of 300 square feet, which was accidentally broken before there was an opportunity of trying the effect of the propelling apparatus; but its steerage and steadiness were perfectly proved, and it would sail obliquely downward in any direction, according to the set of the rudder. Even in this state, when any person ran forward in it, with his full speed, taking advantage of a gentle breeze in front, it would bear upward so strongly as scarcely to allow him to touch the ground, and would frequently lift him up and convey him several yards together."

Samuel Henson.

The next important contributor was Samuel Henson, another English inventor who, in 1843, patented what was designated as an "aerial steam carriage," an aeroplane of immense size, which was to be used for carrying passengers. The thing could not in the light of twentieth century knowledge be called scientific, the "carriage" was never built. Another English scientist, F. H. Wenham, improved on Henson's idea, and in 1867 developed a multiplane. This model was taken up by another inventor, M. Stringfellow, who reduced the number of planes to three, making a triplane, which he fitted with a tail and two propellers. This model was shown at the ex-

hibition of the Aeronautical Society of Great Britain in 1868. Nothing in this model indicates that he had any comprehension of the principles of stability or knowledge of the shapes of surfaces or the power required for flight. Stringfellow deserves, however, much credit for the building of a very light motor, one of sufficient lightness to support a well-designed aeroplane.

Alphonse Penaud.

In 1872 a French inventor named Alphonse Penaud constructed a small model monoplane. It was only a toy—two flimsy wings actuated by a twisting rubber, but had fore-and-aft stability, something that most of the creations of the time lacked. The system of fore-and-aft stability, of which he was the originator, is used more or less in every aeroplane of the present day. Subsequently, in 1875, Penaud took out a patent on a monoplane fitted with two propellers and having controlling devices. But this was not built, principally because it would have required a light motor, and the lightest available at the time was over sixty pounds per horsepower. He, however, constructed a number of smaller machines.

Another student of bird flight was Louis Pierre Mouillard, a Frenchman, who having observed that large birds in flight, while seeming at rest, could go forward against the wind without a stroke of the

wings, constructed a number of gliders built on the principle of bird wings, and experimented with gliding. In 1881 he published a valuable work entitled "L'Empire de l'Air," which inspired many of the later experimenters.

"L'Empire de l'Air."

Subsequently, he invented a soaring machine, which he patented in 1892.

But Mouillard was a poet rather than a scientist, and it was to the charm of his writing in enthusing others that the world owes a debt of gratitude. These early experimenters laid the foundations of modern aviation. They showed the supporting power of thin rigid surfaces, defined the general shape and structure of aeroplanes, and prepared the work for the next generation, which was to perfect these, and find ways and means to make the aeroplane rise from the ground and maintain equilibrium while in the air.

This new generation came toward the close of the nineteenth century. These new men, the pioneers of modern aviation, were divided into two schools. The first sought to achieve soaring flight by means of large kitelike apparatus, which enabled them to soar in the air against winds, their machines being lifted up and supported by the inertia of the air as kites are. The second sought to develop power flight, that is, to send their kitelike machines through the air at high speed, being tracted

or propelled by revolving screws actuated by motor power.

Early experimenters.

The most eminent experimenters in the first school were Otto Lilienthal, who was the chief expounder of gliding flight; P. L. Pilcher, an English follower of Lilienthal; Octave Chanute, an American follower of Lilienthal, and J. J. Montgomery, an American. Lilienthal, a German, was the first to make gliding flight a science, and he first defined the value of arched wings, determined the best shapes for wings, and the amount of pressure to be obtained at various angles of incidence. He met with untimely death while experimenting in 1896. Chanute's experiments were in the line of Lilienthal, but his great contribution was his early encouragement of the Wrights, although the Wrights did not succeed by adopting Chanute's theories.

The leaders of the second school, who actually built and tried power-driven aeroplanes, were: Clement Ader (1890-97), Sir Hiram Stevens Maxim (1890-94), and Samuel Pierpont Langley (1895-1903). Clement Ader was the first to construct an aeroplane large and powerful enough to carry a man, and the French Government considered the craft of immense value and employed him to build some for the army, but as each of the two experiments toppled over at the trial and

wrecked, the Government refused to further finance the enterprise. While Ader was making his experiments in France, Sir Maxim was at work constructing a large multiplane for the English Government, which he fitted with two steam engines of 175 horsepower. But like Ader's experiment, it toppled over at the first trial and was wrecked, and the British Government refused further backing. The experience of Samuel Pierpont Langley in America is not unlike the experience of Ader in France and Maxim in England. He was employed by the Board of Ordnance and Fortification of the United States army to construct the "aerodrome" of his own invention, Congress appropriating $50,000 for the purpose. Langley's machine was a tandem monoplane, 48 feet from tip to tip and 52 feet from bowsprit to the end of its tail. It was fitted with a 50-horsepower engine and weighed 830 pounds. The trials of this aerodrome, two attempts to launch it, were made on October 7 and December 8, 1903. On both occasions the aerodrome became entangled in the defective launching apparatus, and was thrown headlong in the Potomac River—on which the launching trials were made. Following the last failure, when the aerodrome was wrecked, the press ridiculed the whole enterprise, and Congress refused to appropriate money for further experiments. As with the experi-

Langley's aerodrome.

menters of the first school, they did not attain practical results. Their machines were usually wrecked at the first trial without giving any clue to the nature or whereabouts of the trouble.

Just how much each of these contributed toward the final success is hard to say. The matter has not yet been defined, and, possibly, only one man—Orville Wright—is qualified to say. Most of these men made valuable additions to the knowledge of the science, but all of them mixed the practicable with the impracticable in such a way as to make it risky to adopt their conceptions as to the basis of actual flight, a fraction of error being enough to spoil the unity of truths that must be present, and so to end an experiment in catastrophe.

Orville and Wilbur Wright.

Wilbur Wright, who, having tested and dissected the theories and notions of all of these pioneers, knew the exact worth of each. He could have made the valuation, but died before he had done so. In a paper on Lilienthal, which he wrote a day or two before his death, he defined the causes of previous failures, and made a general rule by which all could be judged and their works valued.

He wrote: "One of the greatest difficulties of the problem has been little understood by the world at large. This was the fact that those who aspired to solve the problem were

constantly pursued by expense, danger, and time. In order to succeed, it was not only necessary to make progress, but it was necessary to make progress at a sufficient rate to reach the goal before money gave out, or before accident intervened, or before the portion of life allowable for such work was past. The problem was so vast and many sided that no one could hope to win unless he possessed unusual ability to grasp the essential points, and to ignore the nonessentials. It was necessary to have a genius for solving almost innumerable difficult problems with a minimum expenditure of time, a minimum expenditure of money, and a minimum risk of accident. A study of the failures of the nineteenth century shows clearly that none of the important workers stood still, but that the rate of progress was so slow that each one was overcome and removed from the race by one of the causes just mentioned before the goal was reached. If they had possessed the faculty of doing things more quickly, more simply, and less expensively, they might not have been overtaken by old age, lack of funds, or accident. Some were traveling at a rate which would have required fifty years or more to reach success. Others were spending money at a rate which would have necessitated an expenditure of millions of dollars in order to complete the task. When the de-

The problem vast and many sided.

tailed story is written of the means by which success in human flight was finally attained, it will be seen that this success was not won by spending more time than others had spent, nor by spending more money than others had spent, nor by taking greater risks than others had taken.

"Those who failed for lack of time had already used more time than was necessary; those who failed for lack of money had already spent more money than was necessary; and those who were cut off by accident had previously enjoyed as many lucky escapes as reasonably could be expected."

The realization of power flight.

The realization of power flight was thus left to the twentieth century—and to the Wright brothers. In view of the complex problems to be solved, this achievement may be called stupendous.

As the story of the achievement runs, Wilbur Wright and his brother, Orville Wright, two men of remarkable characteristics, sons of the Rev. Milton Wright, were presented in their boyhood, thirty odd years ago, with a toy helicopter, a butterfly-shaped contrivance, consisting of paper wings fitted with a tin propeller which, when made to revolve by twisted rubber, caused the toy to shoot forward through the air. That toy fired their imaginations, and they saw it, in magnified form, capable of carrying a man.

Their attempt to fly large helicopters constructed on the idea of the toy did not bring practical results and until 1896 they did not give the matter of artificial flight more than passing attention. In the summer of that year, however, the news of the accident and death of Otto Lilienthal, the German champion of gliding flight, stirred them to action, and they set themselves to study aerodynamics and the works of Lilienthal, Mouillard, Chanute, Maxim, and Langley, the most prominent experimenters at that time.

Experiments with a glider.

Their experiments with a glider began in the fall of 1900 at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina. There, on the barren sand dunes of North Carolina, these two intrepid investigators took all theories and tried them one by one—only to find, after two years of hard, discouraging work, that they were based more or less on guesswork. Thereupon they cast aside old theories and patiently put the apparatus through innumerable gliding tests, ever changing, adding, modifying—setting down the results after each glide, comparing and changing again and again, advancing inch by inch, until they had, at last, developed a glider wonderfully exact, which, when fitted with a light motor, also built by them, made initial flights on December 17, 1903, of from twelve to fifty-nine seconds' duration. This, then, was the birth of the aeroplane, the

flimsy, iconoclastic thing which seems to evade Newton's laws, eliminates frontiers, and promises to expand civilization as much as have the steamship, the railway, and electricity.

The Wrights did not make their achievement public at the time; in fact, until 1908 they flew only in private.

But the report of their wonderful achievement, nevertheless, went far and wide, and stimulated those who had given up experimenting and inspired others to take up experiments. Octave Chanute, in 1902, went to France and related the early successes of the Wrights with their glider, and described the general shape of the Wright machine. The result of this trip was that a half dozen enthusiasts, including Louis Blériot, Captain Louis Ferber. Ernest Archdeacon, and, later, the Voisin brothers and Albert Santos Dumont, took up the work, thus founding the mighty French school which has increased so greatly and done so much since. The first of this school to succeed was Santos Dumont, the Brazilian aeronaut sportsman. He constructed a machine of original design, and in 1906 made short sustained flights of from fifty to seven hundred feet in straight line, which created a world-wide sensation at the time. His machine was not, however, capable of more than short straight-line flights, and for two years he was unable to repeat his feat. Meantime,

The early reports of the Wrights' success.

others of the French school graduated and won honors. The Voisin brothers turned constructors and teachers, and with their co-operation Leon Delagrange, Henry Farman, Louis Blériot, and others prosecuted practical experiments and succeeded in getting their creations to leave the ground for modest flights. At this juncture, in the summer of 1908, the Wrights started out to give public demonstrations, and their methods supplied and suggested to the French experimenters the means to modify and improve their aeroplanes, particularly the means of balancing them, which had, until then, been a perplexing problem. Some months before this some American enthusiasts had combined under the auspices of Mrs. Mabel G. Bell, the wife of the inventor of the telephone, and organized the Aerial Experiment Association. Glenn H. Curtiss, one of the experimenters, developed a suitable type of aeroplane, and in 1908-1909 became proficient in piloting it, and founded a school which did much in the following years to popularize and develop aviation in America. During the period 1908, 1909, 1910, and part of 1911 aviation developed in fast strides, generously supported by public interest in its flights. During this time, under the incentive of competition, aviators learned to fly better and better, and aviation developed rapidly, especially in

The Aerial Experiment Association.

France. After that, after the demonstration of the summer of 1911, when scores of airmen took part in long circuits across countries and continents, the military authorities began to adopt it, and by the end of 1912 ten nations had aviation organizations in their armies, representing an investment of over ten million dollars, France alone spending close to six million dollars in its own organization.

2,500 licensed pilots.

At the close of 1912, at the time this is written, there are 2,500 licensed pilots and as many nonlicensed, and about eighty aviation schools, with approximately one thousand pupils. Aeroplane making and selling is already an important industry, with an invested capital of $50,000,000, and there are about forty different kinds of standard aeroplanes. The record flights include flights up to 18,000 feet altitude, 105 miles an hour speed, and continuous flying for over thirteen hours. A distance of over 500 miles has been covered by an airman in a single flight made between sunrise and sundown.

Aeroplane making changed considerably early in 1911, when the French Government offered $268,000 for aeroplanes fulfilling certain requirements. Engineers, finding inducement, entered the field, and aeroplanes underwent wonderful transformations, while aero motors became more efficient.

The same evolution is taking place in Eng-

land, Russia, Germany, and Italy, where the Governments have offered large sums as prizes for efficient military aeroplanes. To fulfill the requirements of the British War Office, for instance, an aeroplane must be capable of flying for four and a half hours without stopping with a live load of 350 pounds, in addition to fuel, oil, and instruments; it must fly at a mean speed of 55 miles per hour, and stay up for one hour in an altitude of 4,500 feet, fully loaded; it must be capable of starting and landing from freshly plowed land, and the pilot must be able to start the machine without assistance. It must do all the above easily, and it must be so constructed that two men can take turns at piloting and can observe the country below, in front, and on either side. The conditions of the French Government are but a little less strict.

British War Office requirements.

A short space of eighteen months, since exhibition flying was discontinued in Europe, has introduced steel for general construction; heavy wheels, reinforced and improved chassis to land on; strong cables for trussing, double cables for controls; better joints, turnbuckles, bolts, and general accessories. It has also brought thoroughly tested propellers, remarkably efficient motors—with self-starters, self-acting gasoline pumps, oil safety valves, special devices to minimize the danger of

fire; and scientific instruments to facilitate travel, and safety helmets and safety belts to minimize hurts when accidents happen. Other innovations have been hoods to shield aviators from the elements, comfortable seats with special arrangement for carrying passengers. The standard makes are obtainable in three or four types—light, medium weight, or heavy; for sport, for racing, for cross-country flying, for military service, and to carry a different number of passengers. The last innovation has been the hydro attachment for water flying, which is now being supplied with a dozen standard machines, and is in itself a wonder in safety and utility. Glenn H. Curtiss is principally responsible for this last, the most practical innovation made since flying began. He developed the first successful craft of this kind in 1911, and its practicability made it an instant success.

The hydraeroplane.

A year ago the hydraeroplane was looked upon as a freak in Europe, and there was only one successful type; now water flying is considered the safest form of flying; there are about fifteen types of water planes, and recently not less than a dozen hydraeroplane meets took place in Europe. The most convincing argument in its favor is that there has not been a single fatality in water flying, although tens of thousands of flights have been made. Four constructors—Blériot and Bré-

guet, in France; Etrich, in Austria; and Roe, in England—also supply aerial limousines, which are limousine bodies with aeroplane wings. The Blériot and Etrich have been flying for months with thorough success.

The future of aviation.

Thus the conquest of the air has progressed to the point of certainty. Looking forward, with the tremendous progress of the past decade in sight, we see approaching in rapid strides the aerial age, when the skies will be as Tennyson saw them, filled

> ". . . With commerce, argosies of magic sails,
> Pilots of the purple twilight, dropping down with costly bales."

MONTENEGRO

(A.D. 1912)

HERBERT VIVIAN

I AM not sure that I know the precise meaning of a "great Power." It seems that some six or seven of the largest combinations of men under one rule are regarded as world-arbiters, though they may be on the verge of bankruptcy, heterogeneous in race, helpless in action. Look at Italy, which was tempted into a wild-goose chase by the many usurers of the Banca di Roma, and has now had to obey a cry of "Halt!" just when she might have been useful to the Christians of Turkey. Look at Austria, whose populations would take a page to enumerate. In no sense can she be called a nation, yet this patchwork Power prates of her patriotic aims, her national ambitions, her rights as a pioneer in the van of Western civilization. Probably every one of her subjects would prefer to owe allegiance to some other country, yet all of them have to carry out the behests of an amiable, almost senile, German sovereign, supported by electors who are bought and sold like sheep. Much the same may be said of any "great Power." It is not a voice of the peo-

Austria.

ple, but a close corporation of a few hereditary, corrupt mountebanks, who talk a jargon of their own, wear gorgeous gold-laced uniforms, and spend weeks or months to settle the simplest questions by the exchange of futile notes, pompous pourparlers, cloaked conversations, and empty ultimata.

Great Britain the pattern of popular government.

Even in Great Britain, the pattern of popular government and mother of Parliaments, the masses are allowed no voice in foreign affairs, which are certainly the most important affairs of all. How long is it since foreign affairs have figured prominently as an issue in an election? No doubt Mr. Gladstone's Midlothian campaign inspired a wave of sentiment on behalf of down-trodden Christians, almost a revival of the spirit of the Crusaders. But it led to very little, for the Berlin Treaty had been signed and all the eloquence may have been but part and parcel of the party game. Anyhow, foreign politics have remained the preserve of a gang of officials ever since our sovereigns agreed to reign instead of rule. Whatsoever party should be in office, the officials continued on their old weary, Whiggish way. Even Disraeli was not allowed to deviate far from the path along which Palmerston had been driven. Gladstone knew very little about foreign countries, their mysterious machinations, even their elementary geography. Granville, Salisbury, Lansdowne, Edward Grey, have been a mere string

of Amuraths. During the last dozen years I do not suppose that a dozen public speeches have been made by British statesmen on subjects of external import. Audiences would have yawned or fallen asleep if any references had been made to negotiations with Vienna or treaties about Persia or nationalist unrest in Egypt. Besides, it was not considered good form to invade the sanctity of a secret service; it was "against public policy" to inquire about matters which must be left in the hands of our winking augurs.

Treaty of Berlin.

Most people, even the sterilized mummies at the Foreign Office, now admit that the Treaty of Berlin has not proved a success. It may have meant peace with honor at the time, and pacified Europe honorably for a generation, but it has left us an unsavory legacy, chiefly because no one could or would carry it out. And our close corporation of a Foreign Office is responsible for much of the present trouble, because, though no longer playing the big drum, it still holds a place of profit as second fiddle in the Café Concert of Europe. Austria was allowed to tear up the Treaty of San Stefano, which not only created a big Bulgaria, but trebled the area of Montenegro; an Austrian and Turkish wedge was driven between the Slav States of Servia and Montenegro. But the principality was doubled, though Gusinje and Plava turbulently refused annexation. Then Dulcigno was offered in

compensation by the Powers, but was only ceded by Turkey after a naval demonstration, in which England took the lead—for the last time.

This small act of justice has left a profound impression of gratitude, such as would probably not be found in any other civilized State. During a recent visit, I enjoyed opportunities of observing the excellent disposition of all classes towards us. The King recalled the services which England had rendered to Montenegro, and assured me that an Englishman was always welcome at his Court. He had received much kindness from Queen Victoria and King Edward when he was in England; he could never forget the friendly spirit which our whole people had displayed. His particular regard for the late Mr. Gladstone is well known. His Majesty has even written a poem about him, and never tires of expressing his affectionate enthusiasm whenever he receives an Englishman. A United States Minister, when presenting his credentials one day, ingeniously won his Majesty's approval by claiming Mr. Gladstone's practical sympathy on behalf of the whole Anglo-Saxon race—a shrewd stretch of diplomatic craft, if ever there was one. In a spirit similar to his father's, Prince Mirko assured me that he always felt at home with Englishmen, and knew in advance that he would share their point of view in all

The King an admirer of Gladstone.

things. It almost amounted to a kind of freemasonry, and such was his personal devotion to King Edward that he felt there was nothing on earth he would hesitate to do for his sake. Indeed, he was so good as to describe his feelings towards Great Britain as a species of infatuation.

Yet, alas! the Montenegrins have very little except one small act of justice for which to thank our country. When I sounded Sir Edward Grey with regard to Montenegrin views on the proposed Balkan railway, I could receive no satisfactory reply, though I followed up my messages by persuading a friend to put questions in Parliament. Even the small satisfaction of a permanent British Minister at Cetinje was refused for a long time. It is true that, in pursuance of his red-tape, Jack-in-office policy, Sir Edward Grey did protest against the Austrian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina—a direct violation of the Berlin Treaty. This was, of course, only a move on the chess-board of European diplomacy, but the Montenegrins have venerable ideas of fidelity, and they leaped to the conclusion that we were reappearing in our old part as champions of distressed nationalities. Rarely, if ever, has there been so great an outburst of enthusiasm in all the annals of the Black Mountains. Dense crowds of picturesque highlanders stood for hours outside the palace and the lodging of the British envoy, waving

Proposed Balkan railroad.

Union Jacks and cheering frantically for our King and country. Every town and village throughout Montenegro witnessed similar demonstrations, with never a single discordant note.

It seems a pity that Sir Edward Grey never realized the importance of reciprocating all these friendly feelings. He must now at last perceive that Montenegro is the one Balkan State which can be counted upon for courage and honor and fidelity. He may plead that it was impossible for any but a soothsayer to guess that she would suddenly declare war against a great Empire without knowing whether her alleged allies meant business or not. But surely some of his secretaries could have drawn up an intelligible memorandum, or a précis of Montenegrin history. There he would have read how completely King Nicholas and his people are at one, how they rely upon his wisdom in time of stress and acquiesce in his patience when times are not ripe for battle. Even when there was an insurrection round and about Cattaro in 1869, the Montenegrin sovereign resisted all temptation to intervene. In 1861 he listened to the bidding of the Powers, remaining neutral while Herzegovina was in arms, even permitting the Turks to take war material through his territory. But in 1862 the Turks declared war, and the Montenegrins were hard pushed after prodigies of valor, twenty-six men de-

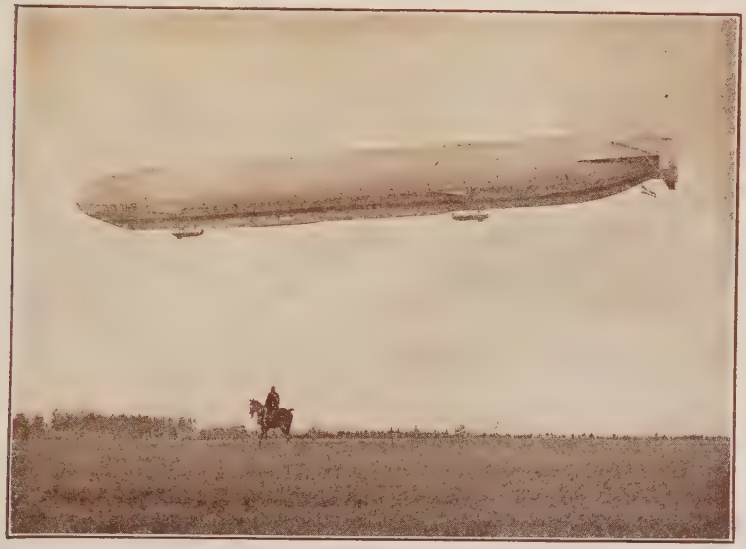
The courage, honor, and fidelity of Montenegro.

fending Ostrog monastery against whole armies of the enemy. The next fourteen years of peace were devoted to the organization of the army and the purchase of efficient arms. There was another Herzegovinan rising in 1875, and it was clearly impossible to restrain the Montenegrins now that they knew themselves ready for battle. In July, 1876, the sovereign accordingly declared war on Turkey and placed himself at the head of the insurgents. Victory after victory encouraged the mountaineers, and the defection of Servia did not matter much, as the Russians were already on the warpath.

King Nicholas invades Turkey.

If Sir Edward Grey had known these elementary facts, he would perhaps have perceived the importance of time. While he was despatching platitudes to the Chanceries of Europe, King Nicholas quietly invaded Turkey without a care for diplomatic rigmaroles or the doubtful assistance of other Balkan States. Up to the time of writing, he has been rewarded by an unbroken series of triumphs. No doubt it was very rash to attack a great Empire in this way, but men like the Montenegrins are not wont to care for consequences. If pledges are fulfilled in time, there is no reason why allied armies should not liberate the whole Balkan peninsula once and for all. It is all very fine for the impotent "great Powers" to prate about forbidding the Christians to profit by their prowess, but I shall be con-

From a photograph, by courtesy of Miss Katherine Wright



THE WRIGHT BROTHERS MAKING THE FIRST AEROPLANE
FLIGHT EVER MADE, DECEMBER 17, 1903,
AND
THE "VIKTORIA LUISE," ZEPPELIN DIRIGIBLE, WHICH
MARKS THE ADVENT OF THE AIR-LINER

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siderably surprised as well as disappointed if conquered vilayets are ever restored to the grip of Mahound. Even if new States are created and younger sons of reigning houses are sent out to earn their spurs as sovereigns, emancipation will have been accomplished, and it is for emancipation that King Nicholas has thrown down the gauntlet. At any rate, he has had the intelligence to understand that peaceful persuasion has been worse than useless.

When people say to me, "You are clamoring for the rescue of oppressed Christians in Turkey; why, then, did you disapprove of the Balkan Committee's hysterics?" I have an easy answer. Until a revolution deposed Abdul Hamid, the one diplomatist whose high sagacity could safeguard the Ottoman Empire, the Balkan Committee type of person could only irritate ineffectively. We all know that pale, unctuous, snivelling type, always urging others to spread fire and slaughter, while they themselves issue leaflets and collect coins for secretaries and offices and leathern armchairs. The only result of the policy which they approved was the Komitaji's reign of terror. Brigand bands, almost openly encouraged in Bulgaria, scoured Macedonia, burning Moslem villages, killing defenceless peasants, and taking toll even from Christians, whom they compelled to store arms at the risk of their lives. The result was a state of an-

Komitaji's reign of terror.

archy, such as a few desperadoes can always create in mountainous districts. Naturally, the Turks and Moslem Albanians were provoked to reprisals, and the Balkan Committee deluged the world with gruesome pictures of massacres, gory descriptions, lurid lectures, and all the paraphernalia of propaganda. It was all one-sided, and many must have wondered how it came to pass that Turks could be such fiends when Christianity was the only offence of their martyrs. But it sufficed to unloose the purse-strings of sentimental old women, and to irritate the Turks to further fury.

Now, while all this foolish brigandage was afoot, the attitude of Montenegro remained invariably correct, even in the face of considerable provocation. Powers and tabernacles vied with one another to pat and encourage the Bulgarian spoiled child, who shrank from nothing to advance extravagant aspirations of empire. Then came the deposition of Abdul Hamid, and theoretical democrats cried "Huzza!" and "Turkey for the Turks." The old trick of promising reforms gained credence when it came from a secret committee, which juggled with watch-words about Union and Progress. The sufferers soon saw that the new order of things was only the old order writ large and systematized. Taxes began to be collected more regularly, to feather the nests of "Union and Progress"; Christians and

"Turkey for the Turks."

Jews were granted the unwelcome boon of being allowed to serve a country they detested; raids and outrages increased steadily, and the "great Powers" were studiously impotent.

Turkey handicapped by war with Italy.

Then Turkey was handicapped by a conflict with Italy, which, if not precisely a war, interfered with the transport of troops from Asia and left the Turkish army without any superiority over the soldiers of the Balkan States. Here was an opportunity in a century for solving the Eastern question at last, and the Balkan States would have been criminal lunatics to neglect it. For some mysterious reason, however, when every hour seemed of importance, when Italy was facilitating the transport of reinforcements, Bulgaria, Servia, and Greece confined their warfare to paper. No doubt King Ferdinand reflected that he would cut a sorry figure as Generalissimo, as it is said to take four men to hold him on horseback. Peter Karageorgevitch exposed himself to a revised version of the taunt, levelled at his pusillanimous grandfather, Kara George, who fled at a critical juncture one hundred years ago: "The fairy shrieks from the summit of Rudnik above Jasenitsa, the slender stream. She calls Peter Karageorgevitch at Topola in the plain: Cowardly Peter Karageorgevitch, where art thou to-day? Would thou wert nowhere. If thou drinkest plum-brandy in the palace, may it run out of thee in wounds. Dost thou not see (ah! would

that thou wert deprived of sight) that the Turks have invaded thy fatherland?" But, even when threatened with revolution, Peter pleaded piteously that he was really much too ill to go to war. If necessary, he would obtain a medical certificate! As for the Greeks, we need not trouble about them, save as swift runners, if the experiences of their late war count for aught. At the best, they may provide us with a comic version of Olympic games.

Montenegro willing to precipitate hostilities.

Apart from motives of philanthropic brotherhood, Montenegro was perfectly justified in precipitating hostilities. Scarcely a day passed without news of sufferings among the Montenegrins in Albania, where a number of semi-independent chiefs exercise a peculiarly oppressive tyranny. I have heard many details of the exactions committed by Albanian begs and the impossibility for a Christian to obtain redress at their hands. Whenever a serious protest was made, assurances were always forthcoming that a searching inquiry should be held at once. But the usual plan was to summon the plaintiffs to attend a Court at a certain town, which they could only reach at the peril of their lives by passing through a district inhabited by their deadliest enemies. And if a Christian refused to take the risk, either in justification of his grievances or when invited to answer fiscal interrogatories, he was deemed to be contumacious and became liable to summary arrest and imprisonment. No

doubt, the Turkish Government was not altogether responsible, for it was powerless to control the Albanian mountaineers without extensive warfare, which would not be countenanced by the Powers. But if the Turkish Government could do nothing, all the more reason for some one else to intervene. And, as we can now see for ourselves, Montenegrin intervention was very likely to provoke the general conflagration, which all Europe had long striven to avoid.

Forbearance of the Montenegrins.

Up to the last the Montenegrins displayed a spirit of forbearance as amazing as it was admirable. Even when the Albanians built a block-house on Montenegrin territory, near Podgoritsa, a few years ago, King Nicholas's Government was content to make a diplomatic protest, and actually prevented the inhabitants of the neighborhood from taking active steps to resent the aggression. It is therefore clear that the present war was not initiated without mature reflection following intense provocation. I observe that some fanatics for peace at any price are complaining that hostilities were begun without the hocus-pocus of diplomatic procedure, but if they will take the trouble to consult any handbook on international law, or indeed any elementary history of the world, they will find that scarcely any war has been preceded by an ultimatum or a declaration. In this case more than in almost any other, a few days' warning would have af-

forded the enemy an undue advantage. Indeed, there was every reason for a speedy blow.

Servia, of course, is not to be trusted under the present regicide rule. It is not long since I was present at a State trial at Cetinje, where it was proved that desperadoes had been provided with bombs from the Servian arsenal at Kragujevats, with the knowledge of the ex-Crown Prince George Karageorgevitch, for the express purpose of blowing up the whole Royal family of Montenegro. In view of present dangers, a sort of truce has been patched up between Servia and Montenegro, an alliance has been concluded, and the best way to shame modern Servians like Peter and Pashitch into fulfilling their obligations was to press forward into the Sanjak of Novi Bazar with all possible speed.

Austria to be considered.

Moreover, there was Austria to be considered also. Already ruling several millions of unwilling Slavs, she sees no reason why she should not extend her empire over their brethren further south. The chaos and corruption and decay of elementary civilization which followed the Belgrade murders have afforded Austria at least a plausible pretext for an advance, and many are wondering why she does not revive her protectorate of the Sanjak and forbid Servian or Montenegrin aspirations there.

But such high-handed action would be

far more difficult after a Montenegrin invasion than while it was only contemplated. And the sooner the whole Sanjak is occupied by Montenegro, the greater will be her claim to retain it when peace is concluded. Contiguity between Servia and Montenegro has been desired by Slavs for centuries, ever since the battle of Kosovo. But it would certainly handicap Austrian hopes of penetrating to the Ægean.

Give the Sanjak to Montenegro, and Servia will not have far to look for a sovereign when the time comes to replace her blood-stained dynasty with a monarch worthy of Dushan's glorious traditions. Montenegro contains all the fine flower of Servian chivalry, and has maintained her independence against the encroachments of empires all through the centuries. The last remaining advocates of Austria argue that she has accomplished a great civilizing work, and should therefore be encouraged to extend the blessings of her rule. It may, perhaps, be admitted, in the matter of communications and superficial comforts, that she has been the interpreter of progress for Bosnia and Herzegovina. But a few telegraph-poles and hostelries do not constitute the last word in civilization. All the material advantages which Austria has introduced have been exclusively for her own benefit; her soldiers and policemen have thriven like locusts on the fat of the land; she has been engaged

The Austrian rule.

in a deliberate conspiracy to force Roman Catholicism upon an Orthodox population.

Assuming that the ends in view are the pacification and development of the peninsula, it is difficult to discover any argument for regarding Austria as the ideal emancipator. Troublesome races are more easily administered by people of their own blood, particularly when courage and freedom have been theirs throughout many generations. No doubt the final settlement will presently be reduced to a question of cash, according to the principles of modern diplomacy. In that case Servia might be bought off, particularly if an opportunity were seized during the precarious existence of the present venal rule. But Montenegro is sufficiently awake and conscious of the possibilities of her future to hold out for compensations more important than those of petty cash. She has maintained her independence at the point of the sword, but it has only been grudgingly conceded on paper. Again and again she has conquered territory, only to see it taken away at the dictation of some congress or concert of Europe. All she really asks is that she may receive the ordinary treatment which is usually extended to civilized States.

Montenegro has maintained her independence only at the point of the sword.

The Treaty of Berlin having been violated by the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, it is difficult to see how Austria can protest against a revision of Article 29, which handi-

caps the future of Montenegro. That article incorporated Spizza in Dalmatia, though it had previously been conquered by Montenegro and though it was essential to Montenegro for securing the freedom of the port of Antivari. Moreover, the obnoxious Article 29 provided that Montenegro should have no flag or ship of war, that all Montenegrin waters should be closed to the warships of all nations, that Montenegrin shores should not be fortified, that the assent of Austria-Hungary should be required for the construction of roads and railways through the new Montenegrin territory, and that maritime and sanitary police functions, both at Antivari and along the Montenegrin coast, should be exercised by Austro-Hungarian coastguard lighters. All these stipulations are inconsistent with full Montenegrin independence, and must be reconsidered very sympathetically at the next international congress.

Montenegro's desires.

Montenegro has other legitimate desires. Having established her independence by her own courage and endurance, having now come to the enjoyment of all the blessings of a civilized State, it is only natural that she should begin to think of her future development. Hitherto Nature has vetoed her aspirations; rugged mountains, admirable for repelling invaders, have also resisted the advance of trade. A beginning is being made: one of the finest natural harbors in the world is being

rapidly perfected at Antivari, a regular service of motor cars has been established to the most important parts of the kingdom. But the crying need is for a railway which shall connect Montenegro with the European system. Of all the schemes which have lately been propounded for Balkan railways, none is so reasonable or attractive as that for a line from an emancipated terminus at Mitrovitsa, through Montenegro by Nikshitch and Podgoritsa to Antivari. The Servian scheme would be infinitely more costly, and the port at San Giovanni di Medua could never afford satisfaction: the river Boyana pours in such great quantities of sand that it would be necessary to dredge there night and day for ever and ever. Again, the Servian line would run through the wildest and most insubordinate region, whereas the whole of Montenegro is civilized.

The Red Cross Societies' duty towards Montenegro.

May I conclude with an urgent plea that the various Red Cross Societies will pay their first attention to the obvious claims of Montenegro? Heroes do not ask for help, but often need it most of all. Only the other day, the nurses and doctors at Podgoritsa could be counted on the fingers of both hands. The hospital accommodation and surgical supplies are hideously insufficient, and hundreds of brave men may be left to die from trivial wounds which a little care would cure. Let England endeavor to deserve at last some of

the accumulated gratitude which Montenegro has lavished upon her ever since the days of Dulcigno.

[Old summer palace of Peter the Great on Petrovski Island, Russia, destroyed by fire. The Danish-American National Park at Aalborg, Denmark, the gift of the Danes in the United States, is formally presented to the Government. The motor boat (thirty-five foot) *Detroit,* arrives in Queenstown, having crossed the Atlantic from New York in twenty-five days. An explosion in a powder magazine under the Haitian national palace at Port-au-Prince kills President Leconte and many others. Explosion of fire damp in a mine near Bechum, Germany, kills more than one hundred miners. Earthquake shock on both sides of the Dardanelles kills nearly one thousand persons. The army of the National Guard (20,000) begins a sham battle in Connecticut to defend New York City. Massacre of Christians in Albania by Turks. More than four hundred Nicaraguan troops are slaughtered after the city of Leon surrendered to the insurgents. Federal troops again hold Juarez, Mexico. Two generals suspected of conspiracy are executed in China. Turkish government orders a court-martial of all persons implicated in the recent massacre in Bulgaria. Secretary Knox leaves Washington to attend the funeral of the Emperor of Japan.

President Leconte of Haiti, killed.

Edmond Audemars, a Swiss aviator, flies from Paris to Berlin (530 miles), making four landings. More than 30,000 persons take part in the funeral services of General William Booth, the founder of the Salvation Army. The city of Norwich, England, is inundated by rain and 10,000 persons are temporarily homeless. The German Emperor reviews 50,000 soldiers in Berlin; eight aeroplanes and two dirigibles take part. The Servian Cabinet resigns. The Chinese Government authorizes Sun Yat Sen to build a comprehensive system of railways with money raised through the new loan: A new Servian Ministry is formed, with N. Pasitch as Premier. Railway and telegraphic communication in Nicaragua reopened by United States marines. Turkey and Bulgaria begin active preparations for war; Bulgaria accused of interference in Turkey's Macedonian affairs.]

Funeral of General William Booth, founder of the Salvation Army.

WAR IN THE BALKANS

(A.D. 1912)

J. ELLIS BARKER

A SHORT time ago I read an interesting account of Sir Max Waechter's recent journey to the capitals of Turkey and all the other Balkan States.* He had visited these towns with the object of laying before the Sovereigns of the Balkan States and their Ministers proposals for abolishing war by the creation of a European Federation of States.

European Federation of States.

All the Balkan Sovereigns and Ministers whom he had seen had expressed themselves sympathetically and favorably and had agreed to accept the *status quo.* To-day all the Balkan States are at war; Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Italy are arming, and people are anxiously discussing the possibility of a world war. The sudden transition from peace to war appears inexplicable to those unacquainted with the realities of foreign policy, and many people are asking: Why has the war broken out? Could it have been prevented by diplomacy? Is it likely to spread beyond

* S. Münz, "Balkan Herrscher und Staatsmänner," Vienna, 1912.

the Balkan Peninsula? What steps should Great Britain take? In the following pages an attempt will be made to answer these questions.

The Turkish Revolution of 1908.

In July, 1908, the Turkish Revolution broke out. It was a great and immediate success. Never in the world's history had there been so successful a revolution or one so bloodless. As by magic, Turkey was changed from a mediæval State into a modern democracy. The Turkish masses were rejoicing. Old feuds were forgotten. Mahomedans and Christians fraternized. The words Liberty, Equality, Fraternity, Parliamentarism, and Democracy were on all lips. Overnight a new Turkey had arisen. Soon the leaders of Young Turkey began to assert the rights and claims of the new-born State. We were told that European intervention in the affairs of Turkey would no longer be tolerated, and that those parts of the Turkish Empire which, though nominally subject to the Sultan, were no longer under Turkish control, would have to be handed back. Great Britain was to restore Egypt and Austria-Hungary Bosnia and Herzegovina. Many Englishmen endorsed these claims, and told us that a new era had opened in the East. At that time only a few people ventured to doubt whether the Turkish Revolution would be a lasting success. I think I was the only British publicist who im-

mediately and unhesitatingly foretold that Parliamentary Government in Turkey was bound to be a failure, and that it would inevitably lead to the formation of a Balkan Confederation which would attack Turkey.

Unfortunately, my forecast has come true in every particular.

Failure of new Turkish party.

The failure of New Turkey was natural. It was unavoidable. Ancient States are ponderous and slow-moving bodies. Their course can be deflected and their character be altered only by gradual evolution, by slow and almost imperceptible changes spread over a long space of time. Democracy, like a tree, is a thing of slow growth, and it requires a congenial soil. It cannot be created overnight in Turkey, Persia, or China. The attempt to convert an ancient Eastern despotism, firmly established on a theocratic basis, a country in which the Koran and the Multeka are the law of the land, into a Western democracy based on the secular speculations of Rousseau, Montesquieu, Bentham, Mill, and Spencer was ridiculous. The revolution effected only an outward change. It introduced some Western innovations, but altered neither the character of the Government nor that of the people. Turkish Parliamentarism became a sham and a make-believe. The cruel absolutism of Abdul Hamid was speedily followed by the

scarcely less cruel absolutism of a secret committee.

New rulers are young men.

The new rulers of the country were mostly very young men, who were conspicuous for their enthusiasm and their daring but not for their judgment and experience. They had picked up on the boulevards and in the Quartier Latin of Paris and in Geneva the sonorous phrases of Western democracy and demagogy, and with these they impressed, not only their fellow-citizens, but also the onlookers in Europe. Having obtained power, they embarked upon a campaign of nationalization. However, instead of trying to nationalize the non-Turkish millions slowly and gradually by kind and just treatment coupled with a moderate amount of nationalizing pressure, they began ruthlessly to make war upon the languages, and to suppress the churches, schools, and other institutions of the non-Turkish citizens, whom they disarmed and deprived of their ancient rights. The complaints and remonstrances of the persecuted were answered with redoubled persecution, with violence, and with massacre, and soon serious revolts broke out in all parts of the Empire. The Young Turks followed faithfully in Abdul Hamid's footsteps. However, Abdul Hamid was clever enough always to play off one nationality or race against the other. In his Balkan policy, for instance, he encouraged

Greek Christians to slay Christian Bulgarians and Servians, and allowed Bulgarian bands to make war upon Servians and Greeks, supporting, on principle, one nationality against the other. But the Young Turks persecuted indiscriminately and simultaneously all non-Turkish races, Albanians, Bulgarians, Servians, and Greeks, and thus they brought about the union of the Balkan States against themselves.

The war was inevitable.

The outbreak of the war could scarcely have been prevented by the European Powers. It was bound to come. It was as inevitable as was the breakdown of the Young Turkish *régime*. Since the earliest times the Turks have been a race of nomadic warriors. Their policy has always been to conquer nations, to settle among the conquered, and to rule them, keeping them in strict and humiliating subjection. They have always treated the subject peoples harshly and contemptuously. Unlike other conquerors, they have never tried to create among the conquered a great and homogeneous State which would have promised permanence, but, nomad-like, have merely created military settlement among aliens. Therefore, the alien subjects of the Turks have remained aliens in Turkey. They have not become citizens of the Empire. As the Turks did not try to convert the conquered to Islam—the Koran forbids proselytism by force—and to nationalize them, the subjected

and ill-treated alien masses never amalgamated with the ruling Turks, but always strove to regain their liberty by rebellion. Owing to the mistakes made in its creation, the Turkish Empire has been for a long time an Empire in the process of disintegration. Its later history consists of a long series of revolts, of which the present outbreak is the latest, but scarcely the last, instance.

The failure of the new Turkish *régime*.

The failure of the new Turkish *régime* has increased to the utmost the century-old antagonism between the ruling Turks and their Christian subjects. The accounts of the sufferings of their brothers across the borderline, inflicted upon them by Constitutional Turkey, which had promised such great things, had raised the indignation of the Balkan peoples to fever heat and had made an explosion of popular fury inevitable. The war fever increased when it was discovered that Servians, Bulgarians, and Greeks were at last of one mind, and that Turkey's strength had been undermined by revolts in all parts of the Empire and by the Turkish-Italian war. The Turks, on the other hand, were not unnaturally indignant with the perfidy of the Christian Powers, which, instead of supporting Turkey in her attempts at reform, had snatched valuable territories from her immediately after her revolution. Not unnaturally, they attributed the failure of the new *régime* and the revolts of

their subjects to the machinations of the Christian States, and the Balkan troubles to the hostile policy of the Balkan States. The tension on both sides became intolerable. If the Balkan States had not mobilized a revolution would have broken out in Sofia and Belgrade, for the people demanded war. If the Turkish Government had given way to the Balkan States, a revolution would have broken out in Constantinople. The instinct of self-preservation forced the Balkan Governments and Turkey into war. The passions of race-hatred had become uncontrollable.

The passions of race-hatred.

Obedient to the clamor of the public, which believed that the inevitable collision of these elemental forces could be stayed by waving a piece of paper in the face of the antagonists, the Great Powers united in making energetic representations at the various Courts. The presentation of the notes was slightly delayed —not through England's fault. But nothing could have prevented the war except a timely demonstration of overwhelming force. Such a demonstration could not have been made collectively by the European Powers but only by Austria-Hungary. The Danube forms the frontier between Servia and Austria-Hungary, and Belgrade, the capital of Servia, lies on the Danube. Austria-Hungary, having a fleet of monitors on that river, can occupy Belgrade in a few hours. She could have pre-

vented the war by concentrating a division or two opposite Belgrade, calling up her monitors, and informing Servia that an attack upon Turkey would immediately be followed by the occupation of Belgrade. Roumania, which usually marches hand in hand with Austria, is separated by the Danube from Bulgaria. She might simultaneously have taken similar steps at Sofia. Why were these steps, the only ones which would have promised success, not taken? There are two possibilities. Either Austria-Hungary did not care to rouse the enmity of the Balkan States and of their Slavonic sympathizers in Russia by preventing a war which appeared just to all Slavs and which they believed they would win, or the outbreak of the war was welcome to Austria's diplomacy.

In considering the question whether the war is likely to be confined to the Balkan Peninsula, we must first of all take note of the historic antagonism which divides Austria-Hungary and Russia in the Balkans.

The position of Austria-Hungary a difficult one.

The position of Austria-Hungary is a difficult one. Austria-Hungary contains about as many different nationalities as Turkey, which State she resembles in many ways. Sixteen different languages are spoken in that country. The Germans rule the Austrian half, and the Magyars the Hungarian half, of the Monarchy. Now the Germans and Magyars com-

bined form, not a majority, but only a minority, of the population, for of the 52,000,000 inhabitants only 12,000,000 are Germans and 9,000,000 Magyars. The 21,000,000 Germans and Magyars, who occupy the middle of the country, are enveloped on the north, east, and south by about 25,000,000 Slavs. The Slavonic peoples of Austria-Hungary are mostly somewhat backward in civilization. They have hitherto been kept back by the ruling Germans and Magyars in various ways which it would take too long to describe. Notwithstanding the Parliamentary institutions of the country, the Slavs do not possess that influence in Parliament which their number should give. However, their influence is gradually increasing. They are demanding political equality, and as the birth-rate among the Slavs is considerably higher than it is among the Germans and the Magyars, Austria-Hungary is in danger of being swamped by her Slavonic citizens. The danger is to some extent lessened by the fact that the Slavs of Austria-Hungary are divided by the various languages which they speak, and the Government tries to increase their divisions. Besides the internal, there is the external, danger of Slavism, the danger of pressure from the adjacent Slav States upon Austria-Hungary. Austria-Hungary's neighbors towards the north, east, and south are Russia, Roumania, and Servia.

The Slavs of Austria-Hungary divided by languages.

These three Slavonic States touch the Slavonic parts of Austria-Hungary. The spirit of Pan-Slavism is by no means dead. Of the Slavs in Austria-Hungary, 2,000,000 are Roumanians and no fewer than 5,500,000 are Servians. The Servians in Servia, who number only 3,000,000, dream of a Greater Servia, and the Roumanians of a Greater Roumania, both of which States could be created only at the cost of Austria-Hungary. On account of the Slavonic danger alone, Austria-Hungary is not desirous to see the Slavonic Balkan States become too strong, and especially those with which her relations are none too friendly.

Russia's desire to possess Constantinople.

Russia's desire to possess Constantinople springs not only from historical, but also from weighty strategical and economic reasons. The Dardanelles are the door to Russia's house. The Crimean War has shown that a hostile Power controlling the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus can attack Russia in a most vulnerable part. Besides, the most fruitful and most densely populated provinces of Russia are those in the south which lie on, or close to, the Black Sea, which are watered by the Dnieper, Don, and Volga, and which depend on the Dardanelles for an outlet. Hence, two-thirds of Russia's water-borne foreign trade depends upon the free use of the Black Sea. The Black Sea trade is very important to Great Britain, because we receive thence a

very large part of our wheat, but it is far more important to Russia. If the Dardanelles are closed, Great Britain can replace Russian wheat with Argentine or Canadian wheat, but Russia cannot sell at all her wheat grown in the south, because transport by rail is too expensive. The closing of the Dardanelles would therefore be ruinous to Russia. Russia's Black Sea trade is rapidly increasing, and it is susceptible of unlimited expansion. It is clear that for political and economic reasons Russia cannot allow Constantinople to fall into the hands of a strong European Power.

In the present war Turkey will either be victorious, or she will be defeated. If we wish to form an opinion whether the war will spread, or whether it can be confined to the Balkan Peninsula, we must consider both possibilities. Let us first study the consequences of the Turkish victory, and let us assume that no European Power will intervene by force of arms.

A Turkish victory will not solve the Balkan question.

A great Turkish victory would not solve the Balkan question, but would merely adjourn its solution. The differences between Christians and Mahomedans would remain, and the Turkish minority would find the task of governing the Christian majority as difficult as ever. The differences between the Turks and Christians in the Balkan Peninsula are rather

racial than religious. The Turks do not appear to possess the gift of ruling men of another race and creed, and of making them contented citizens. Experience seems to show that Mahomedans and men of other religions are able to live peacefully side by side only if both are ruled by a strong and independent government which acts without favor and treats men of all creeds and races with equal justice. Under the British Crown, for instance, Mahomedans and men of other religions dwell side by side in harmony, and life and property are secure. The late Prince Lobanoff said that the Turks would never change because they could never change. These considerations may influence the attitude of the Great Powers in the coming settlement of the Balkan question, for the settlement of that quesion will scarcely be left to the fortune of war alone.

Europe weary of the eternal Balkan question.

Europe is getting weary of the eternal Balkan question, and wishes for its final solution. Already weighty warnings are raised in various countries that the Balkan question must now be settled for all time, whatever may be the issue of the present struggle. It seems, therefore, quite possible that the Powers will, even if Turkey be victorious, abolish her control, though not Turkey's sovereignty, over those provinces of hers in which the Christian element is strong, in order to prevent the re-

JULES VÉDRINES FLYING AT A SPEED OF 109 MILES AN HOUR
AND
GLENN CURTISS'S FLYING BOAT—A VEHICLE FOR THREE ELEMENTS:
LAND, WATER, AND AIR

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currence of the race struggle. If the war should lead to such a settlement, Turkey's territory in Europe would be reduced, but the question of Constantinople and of Salonica would not arise.

Armed intervention, in case of a Turkish victory, if it comes at all, would most probably come from Russia. The Bulgarians, Servians, and Montenegrins are Slavs. They are united with the Russians by the bonds of race and of religion. Whilst the Austrians have made wars upon Turkey merely for conquest, the Russians have waged theirs largely from racial and religious motives. In all Balkan wars and risings, thousands of Russian volunteers have gone to assist their Slav brethren against the Turks. Whenever the Turks have succeeded in defeating the uprisings of the Slavonic Balkan Christians the Russians have intervened in their favor, and have made war upon Turkey. Will Russia, guided by sentiment, follow once more her traditional policy?

The Russian Government has stated that it does not intend to intervene, and we have no cause to doubt its intentions. Russia's statesmen are in favor of peace, either for altruistic reasons or because they think that Russia is still enfeebled by her unfortunate war with Japan and requires rest. However, we must not forget that wars are made more often by

The Russian Government will not intervene.

passion than by calculating reason. There is a strong sentimental strain in the Russian character. Race wars are the most sanguinary wars. The horrors of the Balkan war—it will probably be waged against women and children by both combatants—may again rouse the passions of the Russian people, as in the past, and they may force their Government to intervene against its will.

The victorious but exhausted Turks could not resist for long a Russian army. A Russian attack upon Turkey would be very unwelcome to Austria-Hungary. Her armed intervention would almost certainly lead to an Austrian mobilization, and it might bring about a collision between the two countries. Possibly the Czar Liberator would be satisfied to assume again his historic rule as the Protector of the Slavonic Balkan States, the territories of which would become greatly enlarged. Such a development would appear undesirable to Austria-Hungary, for she dreads the growth of the Slav States, which hem her in on three sides. Possibly Russia would aim at indemnifying herself by acquiring the control, but not necessarily the possession, of Constantinople. She might arrange with the Turkish Government for a veiled protectorate, as she did in 1833 at the treaty of Unkiar Skelessi. The question of Constantinople may soon come up for settlement, but

Austria dreads the growth of the Slav States.

before examining it let us consider the consequences of a decisive defeat of Turkey at the hands of the allied Balkan States.

Before the outbreak of war, the Great Powers informed the Balkan States that they would not be allowed to make any territorial acquisitions should they be victorious. The Balkan States replied that it was not their intention to extend their frontiers, and that they had taken up arms merely in order to secure good government for their brethren across the border. It is unlikely that Turkey's control over those European provinces in which the Christian element is strong will be maintained if Turkey should be victorious. It is, of course, still more unlikely that the Christian provinces will be put back under Turkey's control if that country should be defeated. At the end of the war the Powers would either forget their official threats, or the provinces conquered by the allies would be made semi-independent. They would remain subject to a purely nominal Turkish sovereignty, and in course of time these semi-independent provinces would gravitate towards their racial affinities and amalgamate with them. The history of Bulgaria would repeat itself. Turkey is likely to lose in any case. We may conclude that both a Turkish victory and a Turkish defeat will lead earlier or later to the aggrandizement of the Balkan States. These may be

Turkey's control over Christian European provinces.

expected to quarrel among themselves when it comes to the division of the spoils. When the Turkish danger is abolished, when fear unites them no longer, we must look for a struggle among them for supremacy. Bulgarians and Greeks hope to make Constantinople their capital.

Whilst Turkey's victory may lead to the intervention of Russia, her defeat may lead to the intervention of Austria-Hungary, for Austria-Hungary would not look with favor upon the aggrandizement of the Slavonic Balkan States. If Austria-Hungary should attempt to deprive the victorious States of the fruits of their victory, either with the intention of re-establishing Turkey or of extending her own power in the Balkan Peninsula, Russia would almost certainly consider her interests most seriously threatened, and would act with vigor.

The partition of Turkey.

A final settlement might apparently be found in the partition of Turkey. Hitherto Austria-Hungary has prevented Russia taking Constantinople, but she has scarcely done so in the hope of acquiring Constantinople for herself. Austria-Hungary could obviously hold Constantinople only after the most complete Russian defeat, a defeat which would make her recovery improbable. Austria-Hungary would scarcely accept Constantinople as a free gift. Its possession would involve war

with Russia and the united Balkan States. Austria-Hungary possesses only a small fleet, and if she be separated from Constantinople by hostile Balkan States she will scarcely be able to hold it for long. Whilst Austria-Hungary can hardly wish to acquire Constantinople, her reservation of the Sanjak of Novi Bazar shows that she does not desire to see the road towards the southeast blocked by the Balkan States.

Austria wants Salonica.

Whilst Russia makes the strongest claims upon the possession of Constantinople for strategical and economic reasons, Austria desires equally strongly the possession of the harbor of Salonica. If the present war should bring about the end of Turkish rule in Europe, a consummation which is by no means impossible, a collision between Russia and Austria-Hungary and their supporters—a war, not between two Powers, but between two groups of Powers, which may eventually drag in Great Britain, can be avoided only by a partition which would give Constantinople to Russia and Salonica to Austria-Hungary. Such a partition would offer great difficulties. In the first place, it would meet with opposition on the part of the Balkan States. In the second place, various European Powers would, for the advantages accruing to Austria-Hungary and Russia, demand compensation, which these two States might find difficult to

furnish. Italy, for instance, would probably demand the control of Albania, which Austria-Hungary would be reluctant to concede. Roumania might demand Russian Bessarabia, and Germany would certainly not allow herself to be left out. The settlement of the Balkan question bristles with difficulties and unexpected possibilities of the most dangerous kind.

The partition of European Turkey would create numerous zones of dangerous friction between States, and would cut across many existing international arrangements and friendships. It might destroy the Triple Alliance or the Triple Entente. The present war will scarcely bring about a final settlement of the Balkan question. It is more likely to mark the beginning of a series of great wars for the control of Constantinople. Whether Turkey should win, or be defeated, the danger is great that the conflagration will spread beyond the Balkan Peninsula. Constantinople is an object of the very greatest value to several States. The question of its possession cannot be settled peacefully by the European Powers but only by war, and more than one war may be required for the final settlement. It may well lead to a struggle between the Germanic and the Slavonic races, and Germany may discover before long that her future lies not on the water, as William II. has told her, but

The Triple Alliance and Triple Entente may be destroyed.

on the land. We may be approaching a period of wars similar to those which marked the Napoleonic era. The map of Europe may have to be remade.

What position will Great Britain take?

What steps should Great Britain take, in view of the serious consequences to which the present war may give rise? Some desire that Great Britain should endeavor to stop the war by calling a European Conference. In view of the divergent interests of the Great Powers in the Balkans, such a Conference would probably have no practical result. Very likely it would only serve to show that the European Concert is rather a journalistic than a diplomatic fiction. The interests of the Great Powers in Turkey clash. Therefore the combined European Great Powers cannot influence the course of events. The so-called European Concert can produce useless notes, but it is incapable of prompt and vigorous action.

THE LEAGUE OF THE BALKAN STATES

(A.D. 1912)

HAROLD SPENDER

ONCE more all the wise have been confounded, for a crisis in the Near East has come upon Europe as an almost complete surprise. The league of Balkan States was formed with such complete secrecy that the fact was scarcely known, and its extent was certainly not realized in any of the chancelleries of Europe.

The league formed with great secrecy.

The Balkan Ministers in London do not themselves yet know the terms of the present understanding, but the American public will be safe in assuming that the Balkan agreement is a firm compact between the four States—Bulgaria, Servia, Montenegro, and Greece. They will support one another in case of war and will negotiate together in case of peace. Calculations of coming disunion between the Balkan States are likely to be wholly dispelled, for the four Christian Governments in the Near East have prepared for everything and have foreseen everything. They have even, I believe, arranged for a possible partition of Macedonia between their respective

countries in case of victory in the war. You have here, therefore, a sudden appearance in Europe of the new and most formidable corporate power, the Balkan federation.

As long as these four States—Servia, Bulgaria, Greece, and Montenegro—acted separately they were powerless. As long as they could be stirred up to mutual quarrels, and even mutual slaughter, by agents of Turkey or the Powers they were playing a game as foolish as it was wicked.

All that was needed for Europe was that she should stand by and look on. Even the cry of humanity, so powerful in 1877, was practically taken away from the Christians by the horrible atrocities perpetrated by Greeks and Bulgars a few years ago.

Murder in Macedonia.

Murder in Macedonia has ceased to be regarded as a breach of the Eighth Commandment. Instead of action, we had nerveless proposals, written in vanishing ink. Scheme succeeded scheme and programme succeeded programme, like ghosts in "Macbeth," and with little more reality.

The plain fact is that up to recently neither the Powers nor Turkey ever actually contemplated doing anything at all.

It always seemed, in the end, more to their interest that the reign of murder should go on rather than that the Macedonian question

should really have to be decided once and for all.

Now Europe is faced with the Nemesis of this conduct. The moral authority of the Powers has disappeared. Having absolutely neglected the duties of its guardianship, the Powers find themselves thrown over by their own wards. Those wards suddenly stand erect and face the world upright, claiming the right to conduct their own affairs.

"Who would be free, themselves must strike the blow," sang Byron, and that is the watchword of the Balkan uprising. The Balkan States are of age. They will keep their houses in order themselves.

The cowardice of the Powers.

The cowardice of the Powers has defeated itself and has instantly precipitated this new fact of a Balkan federation. A most surprising countermove, it has brought back into instant and actual life the old European concert.

Up to the end of last week Europe was divided into two hostile camps, the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente, but within three days of the Balkan events, those two camps had coalesced, and Europe had become one.

M. Sazonoff, the Russian Foreign Minister, who happened to be in Western Europe, had arranged with France and England. France had arranged with Austria-Hungary, and

Austria-Hungary had brought Germany behind her.

All the Powers had come together, and the first musical performance of the new concert was a symphony of joint notes into the ears of the Balkan States and Turkey. These notes took a considerable number of hours in preparing, and for several days the wires hummed between the capitals of Europe.

Speaking broadly, Russia and France were in favor of kindness to the Balkan States and severity to Constantinople. Austria-Hungary was in favor of severity to the Balkan States and kindness to Constantinople, while Great Britain stood somewhere in between, and Germany supported Austria-Hungary. The final result was that after many emendations notes were composed which were brave to the weak and cautious to the strong.

The new concert of Europe.

Such is the new concert of Europe. This mutual fear may be strong enough to hold the European Powers together for a time, for it is really a very serious fear. It centres around the one notorious fact, the rivalry of Austria-Hungary and Russia in the southeast of Europe.

Russia, it will be remembered, only acquiesced in the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina four years ago, after a German threat of war, but she cannot acquiesce again. If Austria-Hungary sends troops south, it is

probable that Russia will move; and if Russia moves, Germany moves, and if Germany moves, France moves, and then— There you have the terrible tormenting circle of dread, which keeps Europe powerless and afraid.

Balkan States mobilizing.

Meanwhile the Balkan States go on mobilizing and threatening war. Why not? Already they have gained much. The Powers of Europe, deaf to the appeals of humanity, and absolutely indifferent to the sufferings of Macedonia as long as everybody was quiet and peaceful, are now in a quite different mood. They are hammering fiercely at the door of the Sick Man's room. They are urging him to take his medicine. For the moment their persuasions are mild, but when the possibilities of war become nearer and more terrible, then, after all, the Powers may think that the moment has come to do something real. For if the Powers begin to think that Macedonia is really going to be freed, they may, after all, think it best to free Macedonia themselves.

The only great and effective recourse that lies in the hands of the Powers at the present moment is to declare in favor of a Christian Government for Macedonia under their own control. Against such a declaration Turkey would be powerless, and the Balkan States could not move. The Balkan States would obtain what they were working for, and yet they would not have got what they wanted.

Is there any Power with the sufficiently high purpose and authority to make that proposal?

If it were proposed, would Europe follow it?

In the old days, it might have been proposed by Great Britain, but at the present moment Great Britain has become involved in the network of European diplomacy and seems to have lost the high and independent daring of the old Gladstonian faith.

[Funeral ceremonies of the Emperor Mutsuhito begun in Tokyo. General Nogi, supreme military councillor of Japan, and his wife commit suicide as a tribute to the late Emperor.] Suicide of General Nogi.

THE BALKAN WAR

(A.D. 1912)

E. S.

FOR nearly forty years the belligerent Balkan States have been intently watched and manipulated by the European Powers, so much so, in fact, that it has been a watchword with some of them that when troubles at home become too serious "to kindle a fire in the Balkans," and thus divert popular attention to the Near East. However, though they always appear to stand aloof from the Balkan caldron, nevertheless, they have been watching anxiously for years for an opportunity to jump forward and revise the map of South-eastern Europe, each in a manner to suit its own particular needs and ambitions.

Blair Jaekel quoted.

Blair Jaekel, author of the "Lands of the Tamed Turk," sets forth the facts as follows:

"Austria-Hungary, in a high-handed manner a few years back, usurped the nominal Turkish provinces of Bosnia and the Herzegovina, and thus punctured the Servian dream of a greater Servia. Austria ought to be satisfied; but, no, she even seeks to extend her territory to the Ægean Sea at Salonika. Russia,

although the self-avowed champion of pan-Slavism, looks askance at seeing another nation than herself at the shores of the Bosphorus, the gateway to the Black Sea. Germany admits that she would fare better by absolute Ottoman supremacy in Macedonia. France and England are without territorial aspirations in the Balkans, but their interests in the Mediterranean tend to make them antagonistic to any change of power in these regions.

Relative size of Balkan States.

"Servia is but as large as the island of Santo Domingo, and has a population equal to that of Chicago. Bulgaria, including eastern Roumelia, would cover only half of the State of Nebraska, while she might exchange populations with New York City and suffer little loss in numbers. Montenegro would scarcely overlap the edges of the Yellowstone National Park if placed on top of it, and her population might all find comfortable living quarters in a city the size of Minneapolis. Since her war with Turkey the entire area of Greece has dwindled to about that of the State of West Virginia, and she and Servia are neck and neck in point of people.

"Scarcely will you have crossed the Servian frontier than you begin to feel the influence of the one-time supremacy of a nation which has not to this day given up hopes of regaining its lost provinces—a nation whose forefathers fell in their persistent attempts to Mohammedan-

ize Europe only at the very gates of Vienna itself. Most magnificent of Turkish influence throughout these regions are the ever-conspicuous pencil-like mosque minarets, from the high balconies of which the *muezzins* call the faithful to prayer as regularly as on the other side of the Sea of Marmora. The fez and the baggy bloomers, the long filmy veils and the up-toed slippers are articles of dress commonly seen upon the streets and in the market places."

All these States, so long oppressed by Turkish atrocities and rendered suspicious by the threats and intrigues of Great Powers, and all and each intensely patriotic, have developed their armies during these years of turmoil and have gradually prepared for this great combined attack against the one common enemy—the Turk. The Balkan League was, however, a surprise to the world at large; for until this year the various States not only fought the Turk separately but also fought each other—sometimes at the bidding of the European diplomacy, that had "kindled" the proverbial fire, making use of old feuds, jealousies, and prejudices to do so.

Turkey seventeen times larger than combined Balkan States.

The common enemy of these States—Turkey—comprises a million and a half square miles, more than seventeen times as large as Servia, Bulgaria, Montenegro, and Greece put together; and it almost equals France in point

of population. The authoritative Dr. E. J. Dillon says:

"October 16th will figure in European history as an historic date. For the long-threatened conflict between the Balkan States and Turkey began that night on the Turkish borders to end, nobody knows when and how. War begins, October 16.

"Long before King Nicholas's warriors had crossed the frontier, the black shadow of the war fell like a poisonous upas tree upon the populations, not only of the Balkan Peninsula but of all Europe. In Bohemia, for example, gaunt weavers and spinners who take no heed of politics, and are glad of an opportunity to toil and moil for the wherewithal to keep body and soul together, were deprived of work. They were dismissed to their homes, because the firms employing them failed to sell their output, for the usual buyers in Hungary and Galicia could no longer obtain credit from the banks, because these institutions had to lend their money to the state for new armaments. And this is but a solitary instance of the disastrous effects of war rumors.

"The *casus belli* turned on the miserable plight of the inhabitants of Macedonia. There can be no doubt that these ill-starred Christians were scandalously misgoverned, with the connivance of the Powers, which had formally undertaken to see them fairly dealt with. Macedonia was once on the point

of escaping from this hell upon earth, but the Powers thrust her back. The province was ceded by Turkey to Bulgaria in the year 1878, in virtue of the Treaty of San Stefano. That diplomatic instrument, however, was soon after revised in Berlin, and Great Britain and Austria insisted on the territory being restored to Turkey; but they undertook, in conjunction with the other signatory States, to see that an organic law establishing good government in Macedonia was passed and applied. That promise was never kept. Not till twelve years later was the bill agreed upon by representatives of the Powers, and even then it remained on paper a dead letter. Turkey declined to ratify it, and the Powers connived at Turkey's backsliding. Yet these same Powers were quick enough to impose their will whenever the Balkan States made ready to take the law into their own hands.

New Turkish army trained by Europeans.

It must be remembered, in a survey of this memorable Balkan War, that the Balkan peoples are not fighting Old but Young Turkey, trained and benefited by European education; and that both are fighting with the fury of fanatics instead of the apathy of mercenaries.

Added to the general horrors of such a bloody campaign, marked by such severe and fanatical fighting, Asiatic cholera has played havoc with those spared by shot and shell; and

this great purveyor for the House of Death will yet gather a rich harvest for his grim Master for months to come.

War declared.

[Turkey declares war on Servia and Bulgaria. Servia declares war on Turkey. Bulgaria and Greece declare war on Turkey. The Bulgarians take the fortress of Kurt Kokale and the town of Mustafa Pacha. Blockade of ports by both Turkish and Greek navies. Greeks take Elassona. Turkish frontier crossed by Bulgarian troops, and Czarevo, Selo, and Gorna captured. Plava taken by the Montenegrins. The Turks take the Servian town Karsamlie. The Bulgarians capture Tirnova. The Servians take Rulya Heights. Bulgarians advance on Adrianople. Heavy fighting around Adrianople and Kirk Kilisse between Turks and Bulgarians. Bulgarians capture Jumaia. Bulgarians advance on Kirk Kilisse. The Servians take Prishtina. Kirk Kilisse taken by the Bulgarians. The Servians capture Kumanova and Novi Bazar. The Greeks take Servije. The Servians take Uskub. The Bulgarians capture Ishtip, Macedonia. The Servians capture Koprülü. Turks gain Viza. Turks defeated in Thrace. The Servians capture Prisrend. The Greeks occupy Grevena. The Turks destroy Metzovo, Epirus. Turkey notifies the Powers of its desire that they intervene and begin negotiations for

peace. Greek troops capture Prevesa, a fortified town on the Gulf of Arta. The city of Salonica, a Turkish stronghold, is taken without serious opposition by the Greek army under Crown Prince Constantine. The Turkish Government orders the disarmament of the populace in Constantinople, to prevent a massacre of Christians. More than 1,000 cases of cholera are reported daily in and around Constantinople, half of them fatal. Monastir, the remaining Turkish stronghold in Macedonia, is surrendered to the Servian troops after three days' desperate fighting, in which 20,000 Turkish soldiers are killed or wounded. Turkey rejects the terms offered by the allies for the arrangement of an armistice. The Servian army occupies the port of Durazzo, Albania. The Turkish cabinet approves the protocol of an armistice. Servian troops enter the town of Durazzo and haul down the Albanian flag. A fourteen days' armistice is signed at Baghchetch by representatives of Turkey and Bulgaria, Servia, and Montenegro. Greece refuses to sign the agreement; peace negotiations are to begin at London on December 16. The plenipotentiaries of Bulgaria, Servia, Montenegro, Greece, and Turkey meet in St. James's Palace, London, to arrange terms of peace.

Jan. 1, 1913. Parcel post service begins in the United States. The Irish Home Rule Bill passes the final

stage in the House of Commons. Raymond Poincaré is elected President of France. Aristide Briand is made Premier of France. The War Party in Constantinople revolts against the peace terms. Nazim Pasha, War Minister, is assassinated. The Balkan Allies declare the armistice ended. General Inez Salazar is elected Commander in Chief of a new revolution in Mexico. British House of Lords rejects the Irish Home Rule Bill. The Balkan Allies resume attacks on Turkish strongholds. Battle in streets of Mexico City between Federals and followers of Felix Diaz. General Reyes is slain. Manuel Aranjo, President of Salvador, dies of wounds inflicted by assassins on February 4. News received that Captain R. F. Scott, the British explorer, and four others perished on March 29, 1912, while returning from the South Pole. President Madero of Mexico is taken prisoner and Federal General Victoriano Huerta proclaimed provisional President. Raymond Poincaré inaugurated President of France. Gustavo Madero, brother of Francisco Madero and formerly Minister of Finance, is executed in Mexico City by troops of the new Government. Dowager Empress of China dies at Pekin. Revolts in Mexico against the Huerta *régime*. Ex-President Madero and ex-Vice President Suarez are shot. The War Department orders the mobilization of 4,000

Feb. 3.

troops near the Mexican border. Additional
Mar. 5 troops ordered to Texas. Greeks capture Janina with 32,000 Turkish troops. Woodrow Wilson inaugurated President of the United States. The Austro-Hungarian and Russian Governments agree to demobilize their military forces along the boundary line. The Balkan Allies, announcing peace terms, demand the cession of Adrianople, Scutari, the Ægean Isles, and Crete. King George I of Greece is assassinated at Salonika. Crown Prince Constantine acclaimed King of Greece. Disastrous floods in Ohio and Indiana. Bulgars take Adrianople. The Government's relief expedition headed by the Secretary of War goes to Dayton, Ohio, to the flood-
April 8 stricken districts. The first Parliament of China convenes. The "Chinese Declaration of Independence" is sent to foreign capitals. Ambassador Chinda of Japan protests to the State Department against the proposed Anti-Alien Land Ownership Law in California. Mrs. Pankhurst is released. The Montenegrin army takes Scutari. Austria declares that if the Montenegrins do not evacuate Scutari by May 1, war will be declared. The California Senate passes the Anti-Alien Land Bill.
May 1. Americans warned to leave Mexico. National Peace Congress convenes at St. Louis. Italian troops under General Ganbretti defeated by Arabs in Tripoli, 1,000 Italians

missing. Domingo Rosillo, a Cuban aviator, flies from Key West to Havana. The Governor of California signs the Anti-Alien Ownership Bill. Mexican rebels defeat Federal troops. Peace treaty signed between the Balkan Allies and Turkey. Secretary Bryan and Ambassador Spring-Rice sign a renewal of the five-year general arbitration treaty between the United States and Great Britain. Premier von Lukacs is wounded in a riot in the Hungarian Parliament. Japan asks that June 4.
the California Anti-Alien Land Ownership Law be not enforced. The European Powers demand that the Balkan States demobilize their armies. Mexican rebels dynamite a troop train. Shefket Pasha, Grand Vizier of Turkey, assassinated. Governor Castillo Brito of Campeche takes the field with 1,000 men against Huerta. The *Reichstag* adopts a resolution to lighten and shorten German military service. Bulgaria demands withdrawal of Servian troops from the territory claimed by Bulgaria. Greek, Turkish, and Roumanian armies advance in Bulgarian territory. Robert July 16.
Bridges appointed poet laureate of England. Turks recapture Adrianople. Austria demands that Servia and Greece cease hostilities against Bulgaria. Ex-President Castro starts a revolution in Venezuela. Peace treaty between the Balkan States signed at Bucharest. Castro rebellion checked. Twentieth Uni- Aug. 10.

versal Peace Congress at the Hague. King Charles and Queen Elizabeth (Carmen Sylvia) of Roumania are shot at while motoring in the Carpathians. Carnegie Peace Palace
Sept. 4. at the Hague is dedicated. Ex-King Manuel of Portugal marries Princess Augustine Vic-
Oct. 10. toria of Hohenzollern. One hundred and four members of the Mexican Chamber of Deputies are arrested and imprisoned at the order of Huerta. Yuan Shi-Kai takes oath as President of China. Prince Katsura, thrice Premier of Japan, dies in Tokyo. Fire in Shanghai renders 20,000 persons homeless. Servian troops withdraw from Albania. Collision at Melun, 30 miles from Paris, kills 47 passengers. Six thousand business men of Ulster pledge themselves not to pay taxes under a
Nov. 5. home-rule Irish Parliament. Prince Regent Luitpold of Bavaria proclaims himself King Ludwig III. Turkey and Greece sign treaty of peace. Prince Keiki Tokugawa, the last of the Shoguns, dies in Tokyo. The Euphrates Dam completed. The Russian Government proposes to the powers to withdraw all for-
Dec. 12. eign troops from China. The island of Crete is formally annexed to Greece. Cardinal Rampolla dies in Rome.]

Jan. 10. [1914.—Mexican rebels, reinforced by General Villa, captures Ojinaga City. A volcanic eruption on Sakura Island, Japan, destroys three towns and several hundred per-

Photographed by James H. Hare

HOW THE ARMY IS FED

From a photograph received from the Balkans

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sons. Direct wireless communication is established between Germany and the United States; Kaiser Wilhelm sends the first message to President Wilson. The Chinese reestablished Confucianism as the State religion. President Wilson issues a proclamation lifting embargo on shipment of arms to Mexico. Feb. 3. The Philippine Progressive Party adopts a resolution for independence under the protectorate of the United States. Prince William of Wied accepts the throne of Albania. The Senate ratifies treaties of arbitration with Great Britain, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, Portugal, Spain, Italy, and Japan. Arabs attack Italian troops in Tripoli. Turkey and Servia sign treaty of peace at Constantinople. Mar. 11. "Mother Jones," the aged strike leader, again arrested in Colorado. Field Marshal Sir John French and Adjutant General Sir John Spencer Ewart resign as a protest against the Ulster policy. Colonel George W. Goethals becomes Governor of the Canal Zone. April 1. 100,000 Unionists in London join in demonstration against Home Rule. United States marines are arrested in Tampico and the United States demands a salute to the United States flag as an apology. The American fleet is ordered to Tampico, as a result of Huerta's failure to salute the flag. Huerta still refuses to salute the United States flag. Vera Cruz is captured by the United States forces.

April 20, 1914. [Battle between Trinidad district miners and Colorado State troops. The Mexican rebel leader, Villa, declares that he will not war with the United States. Congress passes the Volunteer Army Bill. The United States accepts offer of mediation by Argentina, Brazil, and Chili. Huerta agrees to mediation plan. President orders Federal troops to Colorado. Severe earthquake in Sicily. Tam-
May 2. pico bombarded. Mexican Peace delegates reach Washington. Norway celebrates centennial of independence. Russian astronomers report the discovery of a large, unknown comet. Suffragettes start a new war in London, slashing paintings in the Royal Academy, reviling the King in public, etc. Villa reorganizes his army of 35,000 men. The *Aquitania,* the newest and largest British liner, sails for New York. Huerta withdraws
June 8. blockade of Tampico. The United States Government prohibits all future shipment of arms to Mexico. Peace Centenary of England and America held in London.]

EUROPE'S COLOSSAL BURDEN

(A.D. 1914)

SIR MAX WAECHTER

THE Balkan War has taught us an invaluable lesson. It has thrown a glaring light upon the unsound and dangerous political organization of Europe. It has thrown to all who have eyes to see that the defective structure of Europe has been the chief cause of many avoidable wars in the past, and that it may lead to many more preventable wars in the future.

There are six Great Powers in Europe. They form two groups: the Triple Alliance, composed of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy; and the Triple Entente, composed of France, Russia, and Great Britain. These two groups have been created by feelings of mutual jealousy and distrust. They have been created for preventing a war of aggression, and for preserving what is called the *status quo* of Europe.

In pursuit of this policy, the two groups of Powers watch one another with sleepless vigilance. As both are approximately equally strong, they hold, so to say, the balance

to one another; they form what is called the *balance of power in Europe.*

People speak frequently of "the will of united Europe." Evidently Europe cannot have a single will as long as the States of Europe are divided by the balance of power into two armed camps which watch and oppose and consequently hamper one another. It is true that the Powers of the Triple Entente and of the Triple Alliance occasionally agree upon some joint measure. If they act in harmony they form what is called the European Concert. However, as the two groups of Powers are divided in practically all essential matters by feelings of jealousy and distrust, their harmony is more apparent than real. Their unity of action is, as a rule, restricted to the presentation of colorless and harmless diplomatic notes; that is of notes which are not intended to be followed by combined action. In the course of thirty years the Concert of Powers presented periodically joint notes to Turkey, pressing for reforms in Macedonia and elsewhere. However, Turkey took not the slightest notice, for as soon as the proposal was made to follow joint representation by combined action, unsurmountable dissensions appeared among the Great Powers, the European Concert broke down.

The group system is probably the best system, which, so far, has obtained in Europe.

It constitutes a great advance upon the chaotic conditions which prevailed in the past, when European wars were far more numerous than they are now. The Triple Alliance and Triple Entente are almost evenly matched, and as each Power must, of course, consult its allies before resorting to action, the ambitions or aggressive dispositions on the part of any single Power are checked by its allies. It is not unlikely that in this way the outbreak of war has been prevented on several occasions.

The present system has, nevertheless, most serious drawbacks. It is obvious that if two Powers of equal strength oppose one another they neutralize one another. This is clearly shown by the negative results arrived at by the action of the Concert of Europe in the past. The present organization of Europe is apt to check combined action by the Powers. Thus, it tends to lower the prestige of Europe in the world; and States which are bent upon adventure are enabled to speculate upon Europe's division to flout its will and to involve other nations in war.

But this is not all. The system has produced a wild competition in armaments among the Powers. Each Power tries to outbid its competitors, and so to alter the balance of power to its own advantage. Of course, the opposing side follows suit, other Powers become alarmed and increase their armaments, and

thus the whole of Europe is converted into a gigantic military camp. How enormously costly the preservation of peace has become will be seen from the following figures, which have very kindly been supplied to me by the Admiralty and War Office:

MILITARY EXPENDITURE OF EUROPE

Russia	£53,000,000
Germany	47,000,000
France	38,000,000
United Kingdom	28,000,000
Austria-Hungary	23,000,000
Italy	17,000,000
Other Powers	35,000,000
Total	£241,000,000

NAVAL EXPENDITURE OF EUROPE

United Kingdom	£45,000,000
Germany	23,000,000
France	18,000,000
Russia	18,000,000
Italy	9,000,000
Austria-Hungary	6,000,000
Other Powers	6,000,000
Total	£125,000,000

The foregoing official data give an idea of the enormous economic waste which is caused

by the present condition of armed peace, but they do not tell the whole tale. The present organization of Europe leads not only to an enormous waste of money, but to an equally serious waste of human energy and labor. More than 4,000,000 able-bodied young men are constantly kept under arms in the European standing armies and navies and about 1,000,000 workers are permanently engaged in manufacturing warships, weapons, gunpowder, military stores, etc. Thus more than 5,000,000 of the most efficient workers of Europe, who might be engaged in producing food, manufactures, etc., for the need of the people, are withdrawn from production.

The nations of Europe are staggering under their colossal burden. The existence of these vast armies and navies constitutes an ever-present menace to the peace of the world. The nations of Europe are permanently kept under the apprehension of war, and the fear of war causes periodically great crises, which are disastrous to capitalists and workers.

[The Curtiss sea plane, *America*, intended for transatlantic flight, is successfully maneuvered at Keuka Lake, New York. June 23, 1914. Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to Austria-Hungary, and his morganatic wife, the Duchess of Hohenberg, are assassinated by a Serb student June 28. in Sarajevo.]

THE ARCHDUKE FRANCIS FERDINAND

(A.D. 1914)

R. W. SETON-WATSON

ONCE more the hand of the assassin has rudely torn the delicate web of European policy and removed one of those rare personalities who seem destined to leave their mark upon their generation. The Archduke Francis Ferdinand was born in 1863, the eldest son of the Archduke Charles Louis, third brother of the present Emperor—a simple, lovable man who played no great part in politics. The Archduke's mother was Princess Theresia Annunciata, daughter of Ferdinand II, King of the two Sicilies—a name of ill omen in the history of Italian liberty. Left a widower when his eldest boy was only eight, Charles Louis married a Portuguese Princess, and it was under her care that Francis Ferdinand and his two brothers grew to manhood. In accordance with the tradition of his family the young Archduke entered the army at an early age, and seemed likely to follow the usual career of a junior scion of what is the most prolific reigning house of Europe, when

a sudden tragedy drew him forth from comparative obscurity. In January, 1889, Crown Prince Rudolph committed suicide in an Alpine shooting lodge, under circumstances which will probably never be fully explained; and Francis Ferdinand became—after his father, living in complete retirement—the next heir to the Hapsburg throne.

It was in 1900 that an event occurred which revealed the Archduke as a man of strong will and determination. During a visit to his cousins, the Archduke and the Archduchess Isabella, at Pressburg, he made the acquaintance of their lady-in-waiting, Countess Sophie Chotek, the younger daughter of an ancient but somewhat impoverished Bohemian family —one of the very few which had not altogether thrown off its Czech traditions. The attentions which it was supposed were being paid to one of the six daughters of the archducal pair, were in reality bestowed upon the maid of honor; and when this became known, every effort was made to thwart the match. But Francis Ferdinand overbore all opposition, and insisted upon a free choice. The marriage which took place on July 1, 1900, was preceded by a solemn renunciation of the succession for his future children.

Throughout the stormy decade (1903-1913), the Archduke, while keeping a jealous watch over the military policy as a whole, was

untiring in his efforts for the improvement of all arms of the service, the introduction of greater efficiency, the raising of the social status of the officers and the material comfort of the men. Finally, in September, 1913, the Emperor created in his nephew's favor the new post of "Inspector General of the entire armed forces of the Monarchy," thereby tacitly recognizing the fact that the Austro-Hungarian Army, as it was at the close of the second Balkan War, was to a very large extent what Francis Ferdinand had made it during years of restless reorganization.

Not less important was the Archduke's interest in the navy; indeed, the entry of Austria-Hungary upon the sphere of naval competition must be directly ascribed to his initiative.

Time after time in recent years journalists have discussed the question whether Francis Ferdinand was Slavophil, Roumanophil, Magyarophobe. All such speculation was on utterly wrong lines. From first to last his policy never wavered; it was neither German nor Slav, but simply Hapsburg. He weighed men and tendencies in a dynastic balance, and accepted or rejected them simply as they rose or sank in the scale of dynastic interests.

The Balkan Wars completed a process which had long been noticeable to attentive observers; and to-day the question of internal constitutional change is inextricably bound up

with the main problems of foreign policy. The Balkan upheaval brought the Southern Slav and Roumanian questions into line, and Austria-Hungary must adapt her system to the interests and sentiments of her own seven million Southern Slav and four million Roumanian subjects, if her relations with Servia and Roumania are to be tolerable, and if her influence is to make itself felt in the Balkans.

These considerations had long weighed with Francis Ferdinand, and for some years past rumor had credited him with the intention of superseding Dualism by "Trialism," through the creation of a Southern Slav Kingdom (Croatia, Slavonia, Dalmatia, Istria, Bosnia, Herzegovina) under the Hapsburg sceptre.

Francis Ferdinand was fully alive to the dangers which threaten the Monarchy from the growth of Pan-Serb tendencies. He realized what many Austrian and Hungarian statesmen are too shortsighted to admit, that an idea can only be combated by an idea, that the staple methods of the police state, as so often applied in Croatia and Bosnia, merely fan discontent to fever heat.

It would be mere folly to ignore the fact that to every Servian of the Kingdom Francis Ferdinand seemed an irreconcilable enemy, the leader of the war party and the personification of Austrian Imperialism in a form which seemed to threaten Servia's existence.

GATHERING OF THE WAR CLOUDS

(A.D. 1914)

ESTHER SINGLETON

BETWEEN July 28 and August 4, 1914, seven European nations declared war. No single cause can be ascribed to so widespread a conflagration. The situation was extremely complicated: there were the rival interests of Austria and Russia in the still unsettled Balkan States; there was the military preparedness of Germany, aggressively expressed by the large expansion of the army in 1913; there was the supposed military weakness of France; there was the expectation of civil war in Ireland, which would weaken Great Britain; and there was disquiet in India. The point of crisis was reached when, on June 28, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, nephew and heir to the Emperor of Austria, was, with his wife, assassinated in a street of Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia.

In the storm of indignation that broke over Austria an attempt was made to fasten a share of the crime on the Serbian Government. On July 25 the Austrian Government sent a startling note to Serbia, requiring an answer within

forty-eight hours. Austria made ten demands humiliating in the last degree.

The Serbian reply, made on July 25, accepted all the terms, subject to the delay necessary for passing new laws, with the exception of the cooperation of Austrian officials and police. Moreover, the reply concluded with an offer to refer the question to the Hague Tribunal. Sir Edward Grey, British Foreign Secretary, proposed an Ambassador's Conference in London to discuss means to avert war. His proposition was refused, Austria declared war on Serbia on July 28, and on July 29 Austrian troops bombarded Belgrade.

As expected, the Russian army began mobilization, with the apparent intention of supporting Serbia against Austria and defending Russia from possible German attack.

On July 31 the German Government addressed a peremptory ultimatum to Russia requiring her to demobilize both against Austria and Germany within twelve hours. France was also asked to state within eighteen hours whether or not she would remain neutral in the event of a Russo-German war. On July 31 also an Imperial decree declaring a state of war throughout the German Empire was issued. On August 1 Germany declared war on Russia; France ordered mobilization; and Italy notified Germany that she would remain neutral.

Germany declares war on Russia.

Early on Sunday morning (August 2), the German troops entered the Duchy of Luxemburg, a small independent State adjoining Belgium, and, like Belgium, assured of neutrality by treaties, to which Prussia, France, and Great Britain were parties. Germany had already built railways leading to all parts of the French frontier and to the frontiers of Luxemburg and Belgium. German troops now appeared before Liège and on August 3 Germany demanded a clear passage through Belgium, offering in return that the integrity and independence of Belgium should be secured at the close of the war if Germany were victorious. An answer was demanded in twelve hours. If it were a refusal, Belgium would be treated as an enemy. The King of the Belgians telegraphed a personal appeal to King George of England. On August 4 Germany notified Belgium that a state of war existed; Great Britain declared war on Germany; the House of Commons voted a war credit of $525,000,000; the Reichstag a vote of $1,252,000,000; and the United States proclaimed its neutrality.

Germany invades Belgium.

Great Britain declares war on Germany.

Belgium began operations by destroying bridges, tunnels and other property, in order to delay the advance of the Seventh and Tenth German Corps, afterward joined by the Sixth Corps. After taking Visé and Verviers, the Germans stormed Liège (August 5), but were

repulsed. On August 5 Lord Kitchener was made Secretary of State for War in the British Cabinet; on August 6 Austria-Hungary declared war upon Russia.

In the meantime the Germans renewed their attack on Liège and gained the city on August 7. The Belgian infantry (20,000) retreated westward, leaving an ambulance train, engines, and supplies. On August 8 British troops landed in Belgium; Portugal joined the Allies; French troops entered Alsace-Lorraine and the French and Germans clashed in the picturesque Vosges. On August 10 France declared war on Austria-Hungary.

France declares war on Austria.

In the meantime, Germany, too weak in big ships to engage the British fleet, was forced to keep the majority of her ships and boats inside her harbors, defended by mines and powerful fortifications, entrusting the work of fighting to mines and submarines. The main strength of the British fleet was in the North Sea under Sir John Jellicoe; the French fleet was in the Mediterranean with base at Toulon and the Russian fleet was divided between the Black and the Baltic Seas. On August 5 the British cruiser *Amphion* discovered the Hamburg-American liner *Königin Luise* (2,163 tons), dropping mines about sixty miles off Harwich and sent her to the bottom within six minutes after the first shot.

The terrible war had begun.

THE GREAT EUROPEAN WAR

(A. D. 1914-1916)

ESTHER SINGLETON

THE awakening was sudden. For a few days the world was paralyzed by the shock. Then nation after nation began to prepare to meet the terrific conflagration. Bankers, jurists, army and navy men, statesmen, financiers, chemists, engineers, manufacturers, and many others, bent to the new task of manipulating men, munitions, and supplies for a terrific contest on a scale that required the work and the strength of Titans rather than of men, and for which in no avenue of human activity was there a precedent.

A task for Titans.

Europe's panic.

Europe was thrown into a panic, but every nation rose as one man to the occasion. Travelers were amazed at the rapidity of the mobilization. Troops took possession of the trains, and everywhere the sudden halt to organized living was felt. Food rose in price, banks were closed, motor cars were requisitioned, and transportation became difficult.

Italy neutral.

Without withdrawing at once from the Triple Alliance, Italy claimed that she was not bound to aid Germany or Austria except in a

war of defense. The Triple Entente, composed of Great Britain, France, and Russia, held.

The commanders.

In France, General Joffre had been made commander in chief; in Russia the Grand Duke Nicholas; in Belgium, King Albert took command. In Germany, the Kaiser, the Crown Prince, Admiral von Tirpitz, and General von Kluck prepared their attacks on France and England.

On the day of the declaration of war Admiral Sir John R. Jellicoe was gazetted to the supreme command of the navy, with Rear Admiral Charles E. Madden as chief of staff. The British navy, which had been assembled for inspection by the King at Spithead, moved forward to hold the North Sea and Channel. Field Marshal Earl Kitchener, appointed War Minister, set himself the task of hurrying men to the front and raising new armies for foreign service and home defense. Field Marshal Sir John French was made commander in chief, with Major General Sir Archibald Murray as chief of staff. On August 16, the day before the Belgian Government moved to Antwerp, the entire force was landed in France, and by August 22 this army had taken up position on a line reaching from Condé (north of Valenciennes) to Mons, with the French army, commanded by General Joffre, on the right along the line of the Sambre River.

Germany's first objective.

For Germany the first objective was the French army. Germany had already prepared railways leading to all parts of the French frontier and to the frontiers of Luxemburg and Belgium. In order to avoid the fortifications of Belfort and Verdun the Germans decided to overrun Luxemburg and proceed up the right bank of the Meuse. Three corps were therefore sent to destroy the Belgian army, while others were to seize Luxemburg, and others were to stand in Alsace-Lorraine between Mülhausen and Saarburg. The German center was under the Duke of Albrecht of Württemberg, and the first offensive was the occupation of Luxemburg.

From Thionville German cavalry crossed the boundary to Longwy, the French fortress that guarded the way from Luxemburg to the valley of the Meuse. South German troops from Strassburg crossed the Vosges into Cirey-les-Forges and cavalry from Mülhausen crossed the boundary into France and fired on the custom officers. The French troops had been withdrawn eight miles within the border line in accordance with France's policy.

At the same time that Germany sent troops to the frontiers of Luxemburg and Belgium, five corps were distributed in East Prussia, to the frontiers of which Germany had also long ago built railways of the most advanced kind.

England showed no such preparedness, for it took her three weeks to assemble and transport a comparatively small force to a distance of 250 miles from Southampton. Immediately the British concentrated at Mons, with the French to the right at Charleroi.

Movements of the British

The orders which the British admiralty had issued to the fleet on July 26 and its departure from Portland on July 29 prevented the German navy from swooping down upon their prey. Had it not been for this overwhelming superiority of the British navy, the west coast of France must have suffered immediate attack from the powerful German fleet.

French and Belgians.

General Joffre, in command of all the French forces, began to deploy his troops between Belfort and Maubeuge. The Belgians began to destroy bridges, tunnels, and other property to delay the German advance; but the Germans took Visé and Verviers, crossed the Meuse, took Liège (August 7), compelled the retreat of the Belgian infantry, took Tirlemont and Louvain and entered Brussels on August 20. The Government had removed to Antwerp on August 17.

The German general, Baron von der Goltz, was installed as Military Governor of Brussels and the Belgian army was thrown back toward Antwerp. When Namur fell, the Germans had control of the entire region between the Moselle and the Meuse and

command of the Belgian railways east of Brussels.

Paris threatened.

On September 1 the British Brigade of Guards distinguished itself at Compiègne, but the Germans had pressed the Allies to Paris and German aeroplanes were flying over the city itself. On September 3 the capital was transferred to Bordeaux, to which city there was a hurried exodus of Parisians. At the same time the British base was withdrawn from Boulogne to Havre. The line of fortified towns—La Fère, Laon, and Rheims—fell before September 3.

From August 23 to September 5 the French and English were forced to retire. On August 25 the Allies stood on the line La Fère-Noyon along the Oise, and for three days the British were pursued by five German army corps.

Great pressure was still directed by the Germans upon General French's command of the allied forces on the German right, where General von Kluck was hammering with the intention of driving to Paris. On August 29 General Joffre visited General French and arranged for a further retreat.

The Germans reached Coulommiers, their most southern point; but this southern movement had left their right wing in a dangerous position. At this critical moment General Joffre, who had kept a steady defensive, now ordered a *general counteroffensive all along*

General Joffre's counter-charge.

the line. The Allies were in a strong position, their left resting on Paris, their right on the great fortress of Verdun; and, moreover, they were reenforced by a new French army (the Sixth), commanded by the veteran, General Pau. The Allies turned and furiously attacked the Germans, who had crossed the Aisne.

On September 6, the German army crossed the Marne at Chalons, where, after two days of terrible fighting, they halted. It was the culminating point in the first stage of the campaign in the west—known as the Battle of the Marne (September 6-10).

The Battle of the Marne.

The Battle of the Marne resolves itself into a number of separate engagements. It embraces, if we go by rivers, the battles of the Ourcq, Marne, the two Morins, and the upper Aisne; or, we can call the different actions the battles of Meaux, Sézanne, Vitry, and the Argonne. History, whatever name it knows it by, will record it as an indisputable victory for the Allies, won by hard fighting and good generalship. The Germans failed, first, because of Von Kluck's bold exposure of his right; and, second, because of the heavy defeat on their right center inflicted by Foch and the Ninth Army. Great credit is also due to Langle and Sarrail, who had to meet the most violent part of the German offensive. The Germans showed themselves no less skillful in

a forced retreat than in their great descent from the north.

The Battle of the Marne checked effectually the great German drive toward Paris. General Joffre issued orders for this great counteroffensive on September 4, 1914. The ensuing engagements and the masterly German retreat to the strong defensive positions already prepared on the line of the Aisne were consummated September 12, 1914.

On the western front.

The Belgians with Antwerp for a base also harried the Germans. Von Kluck's retreat became a rout. The Crown Prince's army was pushed back from Verdun and Nancy; Rheims was recovered by the French. On September 15 the Germans rallied and intrenched themselves on the north bank of the Aisne. Then followed a series of battles, first one side winning and then the other, while the trenches extended for miles and miles. On August 18, the day after the Belgian Government had removed to Antwerp, the Germans pressed on from Liège and Tirlemont, compelling the small Belgian force to retreat. On their way they shelled and sacked Louvain and destroyed its priceless library.

Antwerp bombarded.

On August 28 the Germans bombarded Malines, an unfortified city, damaging the cathedral. The Belgians evacuated on September 26. A month later the bombardment of the outer defenses of Antwerp began. For

five days the heroic Belgians, under personal command of King Albert, held the outer line; but on October 3 they were forced behind the outer ring of defenses. On October 6 the seat of government was again changed—this time to Ostend. On October 8 the Germans brought up their heavy siege guns and forced the passage of the Scheldt. The Allies withdrew and the civil population fled to Ostend, to Holland, and to England. On October 11 General Beseler led his Germans into Antwerp.

In northern France.

Thrown back from Paris, the Germans took a stand along the Aisne River, bending northward through Soissons, Compiègne and Noyon. On September 15 the Allies forced the passage of the Aisne at Soissons. Meanwhile, the wing commanded by the Crown Prince had transferred the German headquarters from Ste. Menehould to Montfaucon in the Argonne forest. On their retreat the Germans turned and tried to break the French line between Craonne and Rheims, bombarding the magnificent cathedral, the finest Gothic church in France.

On September 29 the Germans lost their strong hold on Verdun, and by October 1 the Allies were north of the Somme River.

A new development in Allies' line.

Now a new development took place—*the line began to lengthen from the western end toward the north;* the cavalry began to oper-

ate; and the trenches were extended till they ran from Noyon.

The Germans evacuated Amiens and all the country to the west. The Allies gained the German trenches at Soissons and by October 6 cavalry was fighting as far as Lille. At this time Lille became the center for some fierce fighting. On October 12 the Germans occupied Lille for the second time.

Fall of Antwerp.

On the fall of Antwerp (October 12), the Belgian army, having withdrawn from the citadel, joined the Allies on the coast, and with them pressed on to the southern Belgian frontier. On October 15 they occupied Ypres, and the line of the Allies was extended to the coast. Ostend had, however, fallen and the Belgian capital now sought refuge in France at Havre.

The Belgian army took up a position between Nieuport (ten miles south of Ostend) and Dixmude. The line was continued by the British. On the south the French were contending bitterly for Lille.

German retreat from Calais.

The Germans now tried to gain Calais and many terrible battles were fought. Off the dangerous "banks of Zeeland," between Nieuport and Ostend, British vessels and French warships began to bombard the coast. The German right wing was pushed from the coast and Nieuport was saved. As the Germans retreated the Belgians opened the dikes

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AMERICAN SOLDIERS MARCHING DOWN THE RUE DE RIVOLI, PARIS, ON JULY 4, 1917. THE BUILDING AT THE LEFT IS THE LOUVRE

—Volume X, page 3471

and flooded the country. The attack on Calais proved a failure. The next object was Dixmude, which was taken by the Germans on November 10. At the same time the Crown Prince of Bavaria's huge command held La Bassée, a position which General French said "defied all attempts at capture." The attack on La Bassée lasted for ten days (October 22 to November 2).

Battle of La Bassee.

On October 27 the Germans entered Neuve Chapelle, where the Indian troops had their first taste of battle. They aided greatly in partially regaining Neuve Chapelle on October 28. More battalions of Indians arrived; and for three weeks attacks were frequent as the armies gradually concentrated against Ypres.

Battle of Arras.

The assault against Arras took place October 20-26. The Germans bombarded the ancient city and shells rained in its streets. The city was nearly destroyed, but the French line held; and, in the counterattack, the Germans were driven out. Everything now was directed toward Ypres. At Ypres was "fought the longest, bloodiest, and most desperate battle in the history of British arms." It began on October 20 in clear weather and ended on November 17 in a severe snowstorm. Between Lille and the sea the Germans had not less than a million men. Six of their fourteen army corps were of the first line, and even the

Battle of Ypres.

new formations were terrible in their assault—more terrible than the veterans, perhaps, for they were still unwearied, and the edge of their keenness was undulled. Against this force the British opposed numbers which began by being less than 100,000 and were never more than 150,000. In the actual salient of Ypres they had three divisions and some cavalry to meet five army corps. For the better part of two days one division held a front of eight miles against three army corps. "A price must be paid for great glory, and the cost of Ypres was high. The German casualties cannot have been less than 250,000 in the three weeks' battle. The allied forces from Albert to Nieuport, lost well over 100,000 men, and in the Ypres fight alone the British lost at least 40,000. . . .

"Ypres was a victory, a decisive victory, for it achieved its purpose. The Allied line stood secure from the Oise to the sea; turning movement and piercing movement had alike been foiled, and the enemy's short-lived initiative was over. He was now compelled to conform to the battle we had set, with the edge taken from his ardor and everywhere gaps in his ranks. Had we failed, he would have won the Channel ports and destroyed the Allied left, and the war would have taken on a new character." *

* Buchan.

"The eastern theater of war is a strip of country 400 miles long and 250 miles wide, bounded on the northern end by the Baltic Sea, on the southern end by the Carpathian Mountains, and on the east and west by—nothing at all. Therein lies the explanation of the amazing fluctuations of fortune, the alternate advance and retreat of vast armies, which have marked the campaigns on the eastern front. The eastern front.

"The map shows Russian Poland like the prow of some great steamship pushing westward into the Austro-German territory; or, to change the point of view, East Prussia and Galicia extend eastward like two gigantic arms to grasp Russian Poland." Russian Poland.

This battle ground, which has had a thousand years of history and whose politics have been constantly changed by wars, treaties, and matrimonial alliances, is a mixture of religions, languages, and sentiments. Through it flows the Vistula, which, after leaving Cracow, has still 700 miles to go before it empties into the Baltic in a delta of tangled branches.

At the beginning of the Great War, Russia possessed three leaders of high reputation—Rennenkampf, a cavalry general, who fought under Kuropatkin in the Japanese War; Samsonoff, who had also fought in the Far East; and Russky, a scientific soldier and teacher in the Russian Staff College. The Grand Duke

Nicholas became generalissimo of the Czar's forces on August 3.

Germans enter Poland.

The first aggressive acts were taken by Germany in crossing the frontier in Poland, where Germany, Austria, and Russia meet, and seizing the townships there. On August 16 General Rennenkampf advanced to attack the Germans, and on August 19 in a fight at Eydtkuhnen defeated the Germans. The Russians now advanced toward Königsberg and spread west toward Thorn in the Lower Vistula; but before the end of September they were defeated by General von Hindenburg, who crossed the Russian frontier and moved to the Niemen.

Von Hindenburg's hobby.

At the outbreak of this war General von Hindenburg, a veteran of the war of 1870, was living in Hanover. He had spent much of his life in East Prussia, and from the day of his retirement he made the defense of East Prussia his hobby, haunting the marshes and wildernesses, and learning every inch of bog, forest, and lakes. Several years ago a business syndicate planned to drain the region and to clear the country of forests. Von Hindenburg went to the Kaiser and protested. "This eastern wilderness," he said, "was worth to Germany many army corps and dozens of fortresses. Why ruin a natural defense and lay the Empire open to invasion in its oldest provinces?"

Appointed to succeed General von François

in the East Prussian division, General von Hindenburg had his great opportunity; and for his victory at Tannenberg the Kaiser made him Field Marshal and Generalissimo of the Teutonic armies in the east.

Battle of Tannenburg.

The last day of the battle, August 31, was an unrelieved disaster for the Russian army. Samsonoff was slain that day by a bursting shell, and two of his corps commanders and several divisional generals and brigadiers were killed or wounded. The Army of the Narew had been five corps strong at the beginning of the fight. Little more than one complete corps and a portion of another succeeded in gaining Ortelsburg and retreating eastward by the line of the frontier railway. It was a very complete destruction.

The Germans had between 80,000 and 90,000 prisoners in their hands, about the same number that had capitulated forty-four years before at Sedan. Hundreds of guns and ammunition wagons were taken, many of them left abandoned in swampy places, whence it was difficult for the victors to extricate their trophies. Huge quantities of supplies were also captured in the derelict trains on the Ortelsburg-Allenstein railway.

"Tannenberg was the only battle in the first months of the war that in itself can be considered a complete and decisive victory. The veteran Von Hindenburg became the idol of

the German people, and his triumph was well deserved. Strategically he had outmaneuvered his opponent; tactically he had shown, not for the first time in history, that with skillful handling a smaller force may envelop a larger.

Tannenberg bears a curious resemblance to Mukden, and in his last stricken moments Samsonoff may have remembered that the German feint against one wing to hide a crushing attack on the other was the device which Oyama had used on Kuropatkin by means of Nogi's army. Von Hindenburg was to live to fight battles on a far greater scale when, as Field Marshal of the Empire, he commanded all the German armies of the east. But Tannenberg must have given him a satisfaction which could scarcely be repeated. It was a vindication of the hobby of a lifetime." *

In October General von Hindenburg was called south to take part in an advance on Warsaw; and General Rennenkampf's army entered East Prussia, seizing the railway between Neidenburg and Lyck.

Battle of Lemberg.

Lemberg, capital of Galicia, was the first object of attack. A battle for its possession raged for seven days. On September 3 the first great battle ended with a decisive victory for the Russians. The Austrians lost 130,000 men and 200 guns. General Russky, occupy-

* Buchan.

ing Lemberg, restored the old Slav name of Lwow. Farther south General Brussiloff drove the Austrians from Stry and Nikolajow. A general advance was now made on the fortified line of Jaroslav and Przemysl. The right wing was curved along the line of the San to its junction with the Vistula; and on September 14 the Russians crossed the San. On September 17 they defeated the Austrians (250,000 losses) and captured 400 guns.

On the Russians pressed, hoping to reach Cracow. Jaroslav fell, but Przemysl held out. The Grand Duke Nicholas now seized the passes of the Carpathians and overran Transylvania. The Germans, now realizing the serious state, withdrew troops from France, and gave a bold counterstroke from the line of the Upper Vistula combined with a forward move from Prussia, hoping to close in on Warsaw. The German advance was rendered particularly difficult on account of the lack of roads and the bad weather. It is supposed that General von Hindenburg had more than 1,800,000 men on this march.

Masses of men.

The Russians met these huge masses with numbers equally great. A rough estimate gives 4,000,000 men on this line.

The Russian line rested on the Vistula, a hundred miles along the Niemen to the sea. The left of the main army was covered by General Brussiloff and General Russky in

Galicia. The Czar, himself, now went to the front.

German check at Augustowo.

On October 3 the Germans were beaten at Augustowo (60,000 losses). This checked their victorious march from East Prussia.

The Russians adopted a different course in Poland. As they retreated the Austrians raised the siege of Przemysl and permitted the Germans to reach within sixteen miles of Warsaw, over which the latter flew their airships and bomb-dropping Zeppelins. Then on October 13 the Russians turned and resumed the offensive, with tactics resembling those General Joffre had shown at Paris. On October 22 the Germans fled from Warsaw, pursued by the Russians, who retook Jaroslav and Przemysl. Their main line now faced the Austro-German central armies along the line Cracow-Thorn. In East Prussia the Russians advanced and captured Kaiser Wilhelm's personal game preserves in the east of the province.

Russian counter-offensive.

Von Hindenburg's assault on Warsaw having failed, Russia attempted a second advance to Cracow, for she was faced with the problem of surrendering the wedge to the enemy or of occupying it and placing herself in danger of a flank attack and a battle fought on lines parallel with her communication. On November 13 the Grand Duke Nicholas realized that Von Hindenburg was preparing a

counterstroke. He had a striking force of 800,000 and large reserves within call. His objective was Warsaw again with a sudden blow at the right of the Russian center, which was struggling desperately around Lodz and Lowicz.

General von Hindenburg prepares a counterstroke.

On December 12 the Austrians carried the Dukla Pass, the key of the western Carpathians; but by December 25 the Russians had the three great western passes. In the north the Russian line was pierced by General von Mackensen on November 23, which split the Russian Army of the North in two. Lodz, the second of Polish cities and the industrial capital, surrendered on December 6 without a shot. The R .ssians then took up a position from the Bzura to the Nida, and the Germans poured in from East Prussia. A second Battle of Warsaw began on December 7 and lasted three weeks. The Russians fell back, surrendering the towns of Lowicz, Piotrkov, and Tomaszov. The Germans attacked Warsaw with vigor, but failed. The great contest ended in a winter stalemate. It is well to remember that during the first five months the German army outnumbered the Russian by half a million.

Austrians gain Dukla Pass.

Stalemate at Warsaw.

Serbia, meanwhile, had come into the arena. Ringed around by enemies, short of ammunition, and lacking supplies of all kinds, the small country made up her balance in heroism.

Jutting into the territory of Austria-Hungary, and bounded by the Drina and Save, she offered a difficult problem of defense.

The battle of Shabatz.

"The Battle of Shabatz was the culminating move for which the Serbians played and maneuvered in the early weeks of the war, 'as a fencer plays for an opening,' a critic aptly remarks. Abandoning Belgrade, the Serbians pretended to fall back on Nish, but moved northwestward instead into the triangle formed by the Drina and Save Rivers. During the first week of August five Austrian army corps tried unsuccessfully to cross the Danube and Save. However, an advance guard crossed the Save near Shabatz on August 12; and on the following day the Austrians began to pour across to march into Serbia. Serbian troops were rushed to this point and held firm until they succeeded in driving a wedge between the Austrians. The Austrian retreat became a rout, and the Serbians pursued their enemies back into the Drina or across it. Of the 130,000 Austrians that had crossed the Drina on August 12 and 13 about 20,000 were killed or wounded and 5,000 were taken prisoners. Shabatz (or Jadar) was the first *decisive* battle of the Great War. Its moral effect was enormous. It delayed Austrian mobilization, and compelled the German and Austrian general staffs to reconsider their carefully prearranged plans.

Two Austrian corps intended for Alsace were hastily recalled. Reserves intended to meet the Russians in Galicia were ordered south instead of east, and Germany had to transfer troops from Belgium and France to replace the Austrian losses." *

Vienna announced that the campaign had been merely a punitive expedition, and that she had more important work to do in the north. However, the Austrian casualties were 40,000 (8,000 dead) and the loss of fifty guns. The Serbians now gathered, with the help of Montenegro, for an attack on the capital of Bosnia—Sarajevo. This, of course, brought the Austrians to a new offensive, and on the 8th of September began the Battle of the Drina. The Serbians were intrenched along the Drina for a hundred miles. The Austrians bombarded Belgrade intermittently. The punishment of Serbia (nominally the cause of the war) was demanded by the Austrian nation; and the arrival of several fresh German corps and the renewal of efforts in Poland enabled Austria to pour more troops into the southeast. The Austrian objective was Nish, to which the Serbian Court had moved. With a force of 300,000 the Austrians advanced on a wide front, moving up the Morava valley. The Serbian army, composed of every man that could be mustered, in addition to her regu-

Battle of the Drina.

* Buchan.

lars, did not exceed 200,000, and ammunition was short. Moreover, she was shut off from communication with the rest of the world save by the Montenegrin port of Antivari. The commander in chief was the young Crown Prince Alexander, with Field Marshal Putnik as chief of staff. The Austrian advance began in the first week of November. The Crown Prince was forced to fall back to the hills south of Valjevo. By the middle of November the whole Serbian army covered the ridges with a line of retreat toward Nish. King Peter, though ill and feeble, joined the army and encouraged his men in the following memorable address (December 3):

Heroic Serbians.

"Heroes, you have taken two oaths—one to me, your king, and the other to your country. I am an old, broken man, on the edge of the grave, and I release you from your oath to me. From your other oath no one can release you. If you feel you cannot go on, go to your homes, and I pledge my word that after the war, if we come out of it, nothing shall happen to you. But I and my sons stay here."

The Battle of the Ridges had greatly aided the Allies by delaying for some weeks the Austrian main offensive in East Galicia.

The Serbians, in conjunction with the Montenegrins, began to enter Bosnia, crossed the Save River and captured the important town of Foca; but the reenforcement of the

Austrians compelled the Serbians to abandon the offensive. Moreover, the winter was approaching.

Battles in the South Pacific.

The great war circle had widened so that it even embraced the South Pacific. An expeditionary force from New Zealand landed at Apia (August 30) and forced all the German islands in the Samoa group to surrender. The island of New Pommern (Bismarck Archipelago) was forced to surrender to an Australian naval brigade; and Australians also occupied (September 11-September 24) Kaiser Wilhelm Land (German New Guinea).

War in Africa.

Great Britain's colonists were soon in the field. To a detachment of the West African frontier army, under Lieutenant Colonel Bryant, from the British Gold Coast, an invasion was made of the German Gold Coast (Togoland), which surrendered August 26. Duala, capital of the Kameruns, and Bonabiri surrendered to the Anglo-French forces. Fierce fighting on a small scale also occurred on the lakes of central Africa.

Surrender of Tsing-tau.

Even to Chinese waters the flames spread. In August the Japanese demanded from Germany the cession of the port of Kiao-chau and on refusal captured the place, cooperating with the British troops. The fortress of Tsing-tau surrendered on November 5, after a siege of two months. Two thousand three hundred prisoners were taken.

The Japanese lost a few small ships while mine sweeping in the harbor of Kiao-chau, and the cruiser *Takachido* was sunk by the German destroyer *S-90*. The latter was later interned in Chinese waters.

In Chinese waters.

On October 6 a Japanese squadron occupied Jaluit, capital of the Marshall Islands (German) in the South Pacific, and Japanese ships participated in Eastern waters to protect the commerce of the Allies and in pursuit of German raiding cruisers.

Position of Japan.

The position of Japan was announced on August 19 by the Japanese premier, who declared that "Japan harbors no design for territorial aggrandizement, and entertains no desire to promote any other selfish end." Japan also subscribed to the formal Treaty of Alliance (September 5) signed by Great Britain, Russia, and France, that no one nation would treat for peace separately.

The German navy was from the first bottled up in the North Sea, inside harbors defended by mines and powerful fortresses. The work of wearing down the hostile fleet was intrusted to mines and submarines.

On the day after the declaration of war the British cruiser *Amphion* caught the Hamburg-American liner *Königin Luise* (2,163 tons) dropping mines sixty miles east of Harwich, and sank her in ten minutes after firing the first shot. On the following day the *Am-*

First shots in the North Sea.

phion struck a mine and was lost, with 131 officers and men. On August 9 the cruiser *Birmingham* sank the German submarine *U-15*. The number of trawlers (British and neutral) sunk by mines proves how this form of warfare had been prepared by the Germans.

First naval action of consequence.

The first naval action of consequence was (August 28) when the British, under Admiral Sir David Beatty, attacked the German destroyers and cruisers guarding the coast in the Helgoland Bight. The British sank two German destroyers and three cruisers, and damaged others. The British cruiser *Arethusa* distinguished herself. Among her prisoners was the son of the German Grand Admiral von Tirpitz, the creator of the German navy. British and German submarines took part in the engagement. On September 25 the British *Pathfinder* was destroyed by a mine off Scotland and 259 men lost.

Submarine encounters.

The British submarine *E-9* sank the German cruiser *Hela* (September 13) and a destroyer in the mouth of the Ems (October 7). On September 22 the Germans gained an important victory, attacking with submarines the *Aboukir, Hogue,* and *Cressy* (12,000-ton cruisers), and sinking them with heavy losses.

On October 3 the British announced that a mine field had been laid at the mouth of the Thames. The cruiser *Hawke,* a seaplane-carrying ship, was destroyed by a submarine

(October 15), and four German destroyers were sunk by the British off the Dutch coast. In the submarine engagements at this period, the British *E-3* was lost with her crew of twenty-eight. On November 3 a German squadron crossed the North Sea and tried to bombard Yarmouth. Submarines became active in the Straits of Dover, and torpedoed and sank the French refugee ship *Amiral Ganteaume* (October 26), and the protected cruiser *Hermes* (October 31).

North Sea declared a military area.

On November 3 came the very important announcement from England that the entire North Sea must now be regarded as a military area from the Straits of Dover to Iceland, and that vessels entering without permission would do so at their own risk. This action, which so greatly affected neutrals, was a consequence of the laying of mines by the Germans under neutral flags.

Battles in the Baltic.

In the Baltic the German navy, superior to the Russian, showed no desire to force a battle, although the Germans bombarded Libau, Sveaborg, and Windau. On August 27 the Russians wrecked and destroyed the German cruiser *Magdeburg* in the Gulf of Finland, and on October 11 the Russian cruiser *Pallada* was sunk by a German submarine with all hands (573 officers and men). The Russian admiralty claimed that two German submarines were sunk; but Germany denied this.

Early in October the Germans mined all entrances to the Baltic, and closed the Kiel Canal to all except war traffic. Russia mined the entrance to the Gulf of Finland.

Battles in the Adriatic.

In the Adriatic the Austrians began war by bombarding the Montenegrin port of Antivari (August 10); but the Anglo-French forces drove them back and sank the Austrian cruiser *Zenta*. On September 22 the Allies bombarded Cattaro. The Austrians lost a torpedo boat, sunk by one of the many mines they had scattered.

Two important naval battles took place in the southern Pacific and the southern Atlantic. The first occurred off the coast of Chile between Rear Admiral Sir Christopher Cradock and the German Pacific squadron under Admiral von Spee. The German fleet, consisted of two armored cruisers, the *Gneisenau* and the *Scharnhorst,* and three light cruisers, the *Dresden, Leipzig,* and *Nürnberg*. The German fleet was much stronger than the British, the ships of which were out of date. The engagement took place in the afternoon. The battle off Coronel was fought with all odds against the British; and the Germans won the day. The flagship *Good Hope* sank with the admiral and 1,650 officers and men.

The battle off Coronel.

The British admiralty now dispatched another squadron to the South Atlantic to trap Admiral von Spee. Rear Admiral Sir Fred-

erick Doveton Sturdee's expedition was kept a secret. It went to the Falkland Islands and lay in Port Stanley. On December 8 Admiral von Spee arrived and, discovering the strength of the British squadron, put out to sea. The British pursued and compelled a fight. Admiral von Spee and two of his sons went down with the *Gneisenau* and *Scharnhorst.* The *Nürnberg* and *Leipzig* also sank. The one boat left, the *Dresden,* escaped, but was caught off Juan Fernandez on March 14, 1915, and sunk by the *Kent* and *Glasgow.*

Battle off the Falkland Islands.

The battle off the Falkland Islands annihilated the one squadron left to Germany outside the North Sea, it left only two cruisers, the *Dresden* and the *Karlsruhe,* and the armored merchantmen *Kronprinz Wilhelm* and *Prinz Eitel Friedrich* on the high seas.

German mercantile marine swept from the seas.

The entire German mercantile marine was gradually driven into neutral ports and swept from the seas. During the first two months two German cruisers, the *Emden* and the *Karlsruhe,* kept up a constant attack on British commerce. The *Emden* had a dramatic career. Belonging to the Far Eastern squadron, of 3,592 tons and carrying ten 4-inch guns, she appeared in the Bay of Bengal on September 10 and captured seven British merchantmen. On September 22 off Madras she fired a few shells into the harbor and captured and sank four more ships. On October 20 she cap-

tured seven more, and on October 28 she appeared off Penang, disguised and flying a flag of the Allies, to sink the Russian cruiser *Jemtchug* and the French destroyer *Mousque*. The *Emden* was captured by the Australian cruiser *Sydney* (November 9) at Cocos Island, where she was found about to cut the cable. She was driven ashore and burned (200 killed). The *Sydney's* losses were 3 killed and 15 wounded.

The *Karlsruhe* (4,280 tons), with twelve 4-inch guns, captured thirteen British merchantmen (sinking ten) in the Atlantic. She is supposed to have been wrecked in the West Indies in the autumn of 1914.

The *Königsberg* destroyed the British cruiser *Pegasus* at Zanzibar (33 killed); and the *Chatham* sank colliers across the river to prevent her exit.

The *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse*, an armed merchantman, was sunk by the *Highflyer* off the west coast of Africa (August 27), and the *Cap Trafalgar* by the *Carmania* in the South Atlantic (September 14). The *Spreewald* was captured.

German attack on Hartlepool and Scarborough.

After a preliminary raid (November 2) German battle cruisers attacked Hartlepool and Scarborough. Bombarding the latter they left 18 dead (chiefly women and children) and about 70 wounded. At Hartlepool 119 were killed, 300 wounded, and 600 houses

damaged and destroyed. The German aim was to create a panic in England which would compel Sir John Jellicoe to move his base nearer home.

The *Goeben* and *Breslau*.

The Turkish question opened on the seas. On August 4 the German battle cruisers *Goeben* and *Breslau* were bombarding the coast of Algeria. Pursued by the British and French, they took refuge in the Straits of Messina, whence, after coaling, they escaped and arrived in the Dardanelles. The Germans sold them to Turkey; but, although they flew the Turkish flag, they retained their German officers and crews, and put out to the Black Sea. Protests were made to the Porte. In the meanwhile German officers arrived in Constantinople in large numbers and seemed to usurp the Government. On September 9 Turkey demanded the capitulations under which European residents enjoye . certain rights, a military outbreak occurred on the Egyptian frontier, and the *Breslau* appeared (October 29) off the Russian town of Theodosia in the Crimea and shelled it in conjunction with the Turkish battleship *Hamedieh*. They also shelled Novorossisk (an unfortified town in the Sea of Azov), although no declaration of war had preceded these acts. The British, French, and Russian embassies in Constantinople had been cut off from telegraphic communication with their home governments.

Beginning of Turkish hostilities.

The ambassadors, in consequence, prepared to leave. A Turkish squadron bombarded Odessa (October 30), and the *Goeben* shelled Sebastopol (November 2) in a fog. The British *Minerva* now attacked Akaba at the head of the Red Sea, and the French and British fleets bombarded the Dardanelles.

Great Britain declares war on Turkey and annexes Cyprus.

On November 5 Great Britain declared war on Turkey and formally annexed Cyprus. On November 8 a military force from India, with a naval brigade from the *Odin,* occupied Fao in the Persian Gulf. The Russians invaded Asia Minor from the Caucasus, and, advancing toward Erzerum, took several towns.

Title of Khedive becomes extinct.

On 17th December the Khedive Abbas II, having joined Turkey, ceased to rule in Egypt, which, Great Britain, with the aid of France, proclaimed a British protectorate (December 18). The title of Khedive became extinct, and the throne of Egypt with the title of Sultan was given to Prince Hussein Kamel Pasha, second son of Ismail Pasha. Turkey decided to attack the Suez Canal, and sent an expeditionary force of 65,000 under Djemal Pasha, with the German General von Kressenstein as chief of staff, across the desert. A splendid force of British, including detachments from India, New Zealand, and Australia commanded by Major General Sir John Maxwell, were secretly waiting.

In December the Allies in Flanders and the

In Flanders and France.

north of France were facing the severities of winter in the trenches. Fighting was heavy in the neighborhood of La Bassée, with a small advance of the French. Von Kluck held firm; the Crown Prince was active in the Argonne; and the French did splendid service in the snowy Vosges.

In the beginning of 1915 the Allies held 500 miles in the west (one-tenth by the British, the rest by Belgians and French). The line ran from Nieuport and through the Vosges. Dixmude was in German hands. On January 14 the French were driven across the Aisne, east of Soissons, after a week's battle, for 12,000 men with failing supplies could not hold out against 40,000; but the Battle of Soissons cost the enemy 10,000, and the improvement in their position was slight.

Battle of Soissons.

The next theater of operations was in northern Champagne, where the fighting was exceedingly complex. General Joffre's advance began on February 16. His method was a violent artillery bombardment of the German positions, followed by an infantry charge. The Allies advanced about five yards a day for a month until the trench and woodland war became a stalemate.

Between the Meuse and the Moselle—the way to Metz in German Lorraine—General Dubail, commanding the Army of the Vosges, prepared for an offensive. The French took

French take Les Eparges.

Les Eparges and advanced through the high hills into Alsace, where the opposing trenches soon became as close as in Flanders. "The ten weeks of this war of attrition in the west served its purpose," writes a historian. "From the North Sea to Verdun it kept the enemy on the stretch, bit deeply into his strength of men and material, and prevented him from sending troops to complicate Russia's difficult task in East Prussia."

Poland laid waste.

Meanwhile Germany had methodically laid Poland waste (November). An area seven times as large as Belgium was ravaged, and its inhabitants submitted to severe hardships and suffering. Germany now began to hammer again at Warsaw—her third attack. The Russians placed themselves on the Niemen and Narew. Grand Duke Nicholas's tactics were principally to harass and distract Von Hindenburg, for he possessed neither men nor guns for a big offensive. Von Hindenburg attempted his drive to Warsaw, aided by Von Mackensen, with 140,000 men, along the Rawka and Bzura.

Von Hindenburg's drive to Warsaw.

Battles, sorties, attacks, and counterattacks, with huge losses on both sides, form a complicated series of events in a vast area of marshy forests enwrapped in the snows and mists of winter. By the beginning of March the Russian counterattack had developed and the invaders were being driven back from Kovno to

Retreat of Germans to East Prussia.

the Narew. General von Hindenburg gave orders for a general retreat to the East Prussian frontier. On February 22 the Germans captured Przasnysz; but a Russian force on the ridge poured in, and with heavy and primitive fighting regained the town. The Germans retreated, leaving 10,000 prisoners.

The Carpathian passes were severely contested. The Russian movement directed to Rumania was political rather than strategical; for Rumania's position in the war was not declared. At this juncture Count Berchtold, the Austrian Minister of Foreign Affairs, resigned, and was succeeded by Baron Stephen Burian, a Hungarian, whose own country was now threatened.

Przemysl surrenders to Russians

On March 22, after an investment of seven months, Przemysl surrendered to the Russians, who took 120,000 prisoners, of whom 2,600 were officers. On March 21 the Russians entered Hungary through the Dukla Pass.

Neuve Chapelle.

In Flanders the great assault of Neuve Chapelle was undertaken on March 8, a success dearly purchased. The Canadians and the British airmen were noted for their achievements. On a front of three miles the Allies had advanced more than a mile. The German losses were about 20,000. Next in the western theater came the Second Battle of Ypres, which began at Hill 60 and lasted from April 22 to May 13. Here the Germans attacked with

BRITISH "TANKS," IN THE BATTLE OF CAMBRAI, NOVEMBER AND DECEMBER, 1917. THE ADVANCE WAS LED BY TWO HUNDRED SUCH MOTOR CARS.

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poisoned gas and asphyxiating bombs. Heavy were the casualties; and the balance of success was with the Germans, whose machine guns and poisoned gas won the day. But the Second Battle of Ypres taught the British the inferiority of their fighting machine, and led to the reconstruction of the British Government. The war in Alsace, where the inhabitants suffered all the hardships that Belgium now knew, continued. The Allies' offensive was directed toward Lens and Lille. Terrific fighting took place in the ridges and trenches. The price of such victories as Festubert (May 17) was high.

Battle of Festubert.

Turning again to the eastern frontier, Germany had been busy since the fall of Przemysl (March 22). Men in tremendous masses were concentrated in this region. Von Mackensen's army is said to have been the largest ever mustered under one general. His center of attack was Ciezkowice, between Grybow and Tarnow. It was taken (May 2) with the same methods as Neuve Chapelle. More than 700,000 shells are said to have been used. The Russians were forced to retreat before Von Mackensen. The Battle of the San (May 15) was one of the great conflicts of the eastern campaign. Przemysl fell (May 31); Lemberg was captured (June 22). The Germans also had Libau (May 9). General von Mackensen, now ready for an attack

General von Mackensen's enormous army.

on Warsaw, held 2,500,000 men under his baton.

Battle in the North Sea.

The one naval engagement of consequence at the beginning of the year was the battle in the North Sea (January 24), during which Admiral Beatty's ships sank the *Blücher*.

Of great importance was the seizure of the American steamer *Wilhelmina* with a cargo of foodstuffs for Germany. The boat was stopped at Falmouth and the case referred to the Prize Court; for Germany had declared on January 26 her intention of seizing all stocks of corn and flour. Grain thus became contraband. The seizure of the *Wilhelmina* resulted in Germany's declaring that from February 18 the waters around the British Isles would be considered a war region and any enemy merchant vessels found there "would be destroyed without its always being possible to warn the crew or passengers."

The blockade question.

The British Government then closed to all ships of all nations the greater part of the North Channel leading from the Atlantic to the Irish Sea. On March 1 Asquith announced in the House of Commons "that no neutral vessel which sailed from a German port after March 1 would be allowed to proceed, and no vessel after that date would be allowed to sail to any German port."

Then the activity of the German submarines began. On March 28 one sank the passenger

steamer *Falaba* with loss of life; on April 30 the American tank steamer *Gulflight* was torpedoed off the Scilly Isles, and on May 7 the *Lusitania* was sunk off Kinsale Head with a loss of nearly 1,200 lives, including many Americans. On May 13 President Wilson sent a *Lusitania* protest to Germany.

Lusitania torpedoed.

The great bombardment of the Dardanelles began on February 19 with the attempt to force a passage into the Sea of Marmora by naval power alone, but it soon became obvious that it was necessary to have a land force to cooperate, although the French and British had a strong fleet, including the new superdreadnought *Queen Elizabeth,* with the most powerful guns ever used in naval warfare. The great attack failed with the loss of three battleships and more than 2,000 men; and after three weeks of incessant battle with ships, forts, submarines, and mines, the attack was temporarily abandoned while the Allies waited for the Dardanelles expeditionary force to arrive from France and England. It assembled in Egypt in April, to be commanded by Sir Ian Hamilton, and consisted of 120,000 men, mostly British.

The struggle for Krithia and the Achi Baba heights (April 28) was attended with terrible losses. The Second Battle of Krithia (May 6-9), and the Third (June 4)—a five weeks' struggle—was one of the most costly and by

far the most reckless campaign of this whole war of nations. Up to May 31 the British losses in the Dardanelles (exclusive of the French) were 38,636 (1,722 were officers), larger than the whole losses for the three years of the South African War, which were 38,156—figures that cover the landing and the two attacks on Achi Baba. The Turkish loss was small in comparison.

Losses in the Dardanelles.

Italy enters the war.

Italy, which had denounced the Triple Alliance (May 4), now entered the war (May 23). An Austrian raid in the Adriatic began hostilities. The attack extended from Brindisi to Venice. The Austrians also on the same day blew up two bridges in the Adige valley. General Cadorna's army advanced against the Isonzo on the way to Trieste. A second army on the Trentino frontier had Trent for its object. Italian mobilization was slow. The commander in chief was King Victor Emmanuel, and the chief of staff and generalissimo in the field was General Count Luigi Cadorna, who had a knowledge of Italy's northern frontier.

The Italian army began to work through the passes of the Dolomites and Carnic Alps, and soon acquired the highest peaks and took Cortina on the great Strada d'Alemagna, one of the finest roads in Europe. The Trentino fighting began on the same day. The Italians pushed forward until they reached

Italian progress

within five miles of Borgo (May 27), and closed in upon the outworks of Trent. The floods of the Isonzo made progress difficult in places where the enemy had destroyed the bridges; but the Italians, reenforced, prepared to attack Monte Nero near Gorizia; and Italian aviators persistently bombarded Monfalcone and the railway between Gorizia and Trieste to cut off supplies, while destroyers shelled the Monfalcone shipyards. The Italians took the coast town of Grado, and on June 8 occupied the town of Monfalcone.

Meanwhile the *Prinz Eitel Friedrich* had been interned at Newport News (April 7), the Germans had dropped bombs on Paris (March 31) and London (May 31), the famous German submarine *U-29* had been sunk (March 26), and the Bryce Commission had reported on the Belgian atrocities (May 12).

Germans occupy Warsaw.

A most dramatic occurrence was the occupation of Warsaw by the Germans (August 5).

The Germans had also taken Przasnysz (July 31), and the Austrians Lemberg (June 22) and Lublin (July 31). In the middle of July the Prussian losses were estimated at 1,500,000.

Strained relations between Germany and the United States.

Much of the summer was occupied by the strained relations between Germany and the United States on account of the *Lusitania* question and the discovery that German spies

were acting under direction of high officials. President Wilson sent a second *Lusitania* note to Berlin on June 11 and a third on July 8. On July 9 the American Government took charge of the Sayville wireless plant, and the proved implication of the Austrian Minister Dumba in plots to blow up munition factories caused President Wilson to demand his recall (September 9).

Argonne and Champagne.

The Germans suffered a naval defeat in the Gulf of Riga (August 16-21) and the English lost a transport with 1,000 men, which was torpedoed in the Ægean Sea (August 14).

The Germans progressed in the Argonne. They took a mile of trenches on September 8; but during September 14-25 the French and English won about fifty square miles in Champagne, capturing 25,000 men and many guns.

The Allies landed a new army at Gallipoli (August 7); Zeppelins raided London suburbs (August 17) and bombarded the heart of London (September 8); General von Mackensen captured Pinsk (September 15); the Germans occupied Vilna (September 18) and bombarded the Serbian frontier (September 18). Bulgaria and Greece then mobilized (September 21 and September 24). Sir Edward Grey pledged armed support to Balkan sympathizers of the Allies (September 28).

Bulgaria and Greece mobolized.

On September 7 the Czar took the Grand Duke Nicholas's place as commander in chief;

the Russians took 17,000 prisoners on Sereth River in Galicia; Russia sent an ultimatum to Bulgaria (October 4), which Bulgaria rejected (October 6). Russian cruisers bombarded the Bulgarian port of Varna (October 7), and Bulgaria declared war on Serbia (October 14).

Bulgaria declared war on Serbia.

The Allies landed at Salonica (October 4); the French advanced into Serbia (October 6); and Austro-Germans invaded Serbia. The French captured Hill No. 191 in Champagne (September 30); the German attacks on Belgian line failed (October 15); Von Bernstorff presented note concerning disavowal and reparation in *Arabic* case (October 5); the premier of Greece, Venizelos, resigned (October 6); Belgrade was captured by the Germans (October 9); Russians pierced Austrian line at Stripa River (October 11); British submarines sank German ships in the Baltic (October 13); Zeppelins killed 55 persons in London (October 13); Greece announced her determination not to join Serbia (October 15); German attacks on Belgian line failed (October 15); Bulgarians cut Salonica railway at Vranya (October 16); Italy declared war on Bulgaria (October 7); Germans won in Krusevac (November 6); Russians were driven back across the Styr (November 14); Serbs retired from Babuna Heights and Prilep (November 17), and on November 19 four-

Italy declared war on Bulgaria.

fifths of Serbia was occupied by invading Austro-German armies. On November 8 Berlin announced the close of the Serbian campaign.

Servian campaign ended.

Nish was captured by Bulgarians (November 5); Lord Kitchener visited the Near East and had a conference with King Constantine of Greece (November 21); the French people contributed $4,000,000,000 to the Loan of Victory; the *Ancona* was torpedoed in the Mediterranean (November 9) by Germans; the German cruiser *Frauenlob* was sunk by a submarine in the Baltic (November 22); Greece was partially blockaded by the Allies; and the British hospital ship *Anglia* was sunk in the English Channel.

Ancona torpedoed.

Next come the Caucasian campaign and the Turkish attacks in Egypt. The Turkish navy was badly crippled. The United States demanded of Germany the recall of Captain Boy-Ed and Von Papen, who had been aiding German spies in this country (December 2), and sent the *Ancona* note to Austria (December 6). The Allies were driven from Serbia; Greece yielded to the ultimatum of the Allies; General de Castelnau was appointed chief of staff under General Joffre; forty-five French aeroplanes dropped bombs on railroad stations behind German lines (December 14); Sir Douglas Haig succeeded General French in command of the British forces, and General

Sir Douglas Haig succeeds General French.

French became commander in chief of the troops in the United Kingdom. The Allies fortified Salonica; Russians took Kum in Persia; Austrians took the offensive on the Isonzo River; Arabs attacked the western frontier of Egypt (December 27); the British liner *Persia* was sunk in the Mediterranean (December 29); and the British steamship *Glengyle* was torpedoed in the Mediterranean (January 2). The British conquest of the Kameruns was announced.

Nancy was bombarded by Germans (January 7); Germany agreed to settle the *Frye* and *Lusitania* cases; Russians bombarded Varna on the Black Sea (January 8); the British abandoned Gallipoli, and the *King Edward VII* was sunk (January 9); the United States began to consider defense plans in Congress; Austrians captured Mount Lovcen, Montenegro (January 10); Germans gained in Champagne with great losses; the French occupied Corfu and turned the Kaiser's villa Achilleion into a hospital (January 10); the Greek Government protested to the allied powers against the violation of her neutrality; French submarines sank an Austrian cruiser near Cattaro (January 13); Austrians entered Montenegro's capital, Cettinje (January 14); Germany threatened reprisals for act of British warship *Baralong;* King Nicholas of Montenegro sur-

French occupy Corfu and take Kaiser's villa.

King Nicholas of Montenegro surrenders to Austrians.

rendered to Austrians (January 17); the German Kaiser and King Ferdinand of Bulgaria met at Nish (January 18); Austrians took the Montenegrin ports of Antivari and Dulcigno (January 22); King Nicholas of Montenegro fled to Italy (January 23); England was raided by German aeroplanes (January 23); Austrians occupied Scutari, Albania; Germans shelled Nieuport cathedral (January 25); Russians attacked Erzerum, Turkey (January 27); Allies occupied Greek port in Salonica Harbor; Germans attacked French south of the Somme; Zeppelins killed twenty-three persons in Paris (January 30); Germans gained two miles of trenches on the Somme.

Germans shell Nieuport cathedral.

Declaration with regard to Belgium.

On February 18 the allied powers signatory to the treaty guaranteeing the independence and neutrality of Belgium decided to renew the agreement not to end hostilities until the political and economic independence of Belgium is reestablished and the nation is indemnified for the damages suffered. Japan and Italy concurred in this new declaration.

PROGRESS OF THE EUROPEAN WAR AND THE WORLD'S POLITICAL REVOLUTIONS

(A. D. 1916-1917)

C. W. TAYLOR

The Battle of Verdun.

VERDUN was a strong barrier fortress, famous in all French history, and generally believed to control the road from Paris to Metz, thus offering the invader a base for a drive on Paris and affording the French a starting point for the conquest of Alsace-Lorraine. On February 21, 1916, a German army led by the Crown Prince opened a fierce offensive in this sector, beginning with artillery fire that drove the French out of their first and second line trenches. By February 26 the Germans had captured Fort Douaumont; on March 3 they occupied the town of Douaumont as well.

After the Crown Prince's army had taken Douaumont the battle on the east side of the Meuse centered about the fort and town of Vaux. West of the Meuse, Hill 304 and the hill known as Le Mort Homme, key positions, were desperately contested. Little by little, at terrible cost of life, the Germans gained important points. On June 7, 1916, Fort Vaux fell. The fieldworks known as the Thiaumont

Farm were repeatedly captured by the invaders and retaken by the French.

But the Battle of Verdun, after holding the attention of the world for months, slowed down with the beginning of the Allied offensive on the Somme, July 1, 1916. Still the struggle continued, but with the apparent advantage now to the French. On October 21, eight months after the opening of this campaign, the French made a counterattack on this front. By October 24, 1916, they had won back the fort and village of Douaumont, the Thiaumont Fieldworks, Caillette Wood, and Haudremont Quarry. On November 2 the Germans evacuated Fort Vaux. The French were now in possession of nearly every position of military importance that had been taken by the Germans during this long battle.

Two French generals were brought into great prominence by this campaign—Nivelle, who was made commander of the armies of the North and the Northeast on December 12, 1916, and Pétain, who succeeded Nivelle on May 15, 1917.

The Austro-Italian front.

On May 14, 1916, Austrian forces along the Trentino front began an intense bombardment, followed on the 15th by infantry attacks between the Adige and the upper Astico Rivers. The Italians fell back and the Austrians advanced, capturing many prisoners. By the 26th of May, Arsiero, Posina, and Asiago had

fallen, and the invaders were threatening the city of Vicenza, which, with Verona, had already suffered from aeroplane bombardment. On June 4 the Austrians captured Cesuna. But now the drive seemed to have spent its force; for several days the Austrians met alternate success and failure. Probably troops had been withdrawn to face the Russians.

Italian counter-offensives

It was now the turn of the Italians to advance. In the latter part of June, 1916, they recaptured Asiago, Arsiero, and Posina, and by the end of July had retaken nearly everything lost in the Austrian drive.

Fall of Gorizia.

In August, 1916, Italy reopened her campaign on the Isonzo River with great vigor, and on the 9th her soldiers took the Austrian bridgehead of Gorizia, a key position, most important in forcing the road to Trieste. Another Italian offensive was begun on the Carso Plateau on November 1, but no further important changes on this front were achieved.

The great Russian drive.

On the 2d day of June, 1916, artillery all along the Russian front showed great activity, and on June 4 Russia launched a tremendous new offensive, extending from Pinsk on the edge of the Pripet Marshes to the border of Rumania—a battle front of more than three hundred miles. One by one the Russians regained their lost fortresses—Lutsk on June 8, 1916, Dubno on June 11. On the 18th they captured Czernowitz, capital of the Austrian

province of Bukowina. At the close of July Bukowina was conquered and Russian soldiers held some of the passes of the Carpathians. They also held a part of Galicia bordered by the Strypa River on the west and by the Dniester and the Pruth on the south.

In the north the great objective of the drive was Kovel, a railroad center whose chief line of defense was along the Stokhod River. Early in August Von Hindenburg took command for the Teutons, and an attempt of the Russians to pierce the German line on the Stokhod met with fierce resistance.

In the middle of the line Lemberg, capital of Galicia and a railroad center, was the objective. To the north, the rivers Styr and Bug are main lines of defense for the city; to the south is the Dniester, with its tributaries Sereth, Strypa, and Zlota Lipa. The Russians advanced from both directions. In the south General Lechitsky's troops occupied the city of Stanislau, August 10, 1916, the Teutons retreating toward Halicz. But Lemberg did not fall, and by August 15 the drives here and farther north seemed to be checked.

The Russian General Brussilov reported that between June 4 and August 12 the Russians had captured 7,757 officers and 350,805 men, guns and ammunition, while the territory taken comprised about 15,000 square miles.

Following the Revolution, General Alexiev

was made Russian commander in chief, March 24, 1917, with General Lechitsky commander in chief on the central front.

The Battle of the Somme.

In the closing days of June, 1916, the activity of Allied artillery heralded the opening of a new offensive in the west. This began on July 1, over a front of about twenty-five miles, on that part of the British and French battle front that runs north and south and crosses the River Somme and its tributary the Ancre. The objective of the French seemed to be the town of Péronne; the British were moving toward Bapaume. By July 10, 1916, the French already held commanding positions not far from Péronne while the British had taken Longueval, about ten miles from Bapaume. In the same month the British captured Contalmaison, the Trones Wood, the Mametz Wood, and the villages of Ovillers and La Boisselle.

It was on September 15, 1916, in storming German positions to the north of Combles, that the British first made use in battle of their strange armored cars that have come to be known as tanks. On September 26 French and British troops took the important center of Combles. In three months' fighting the Allies won about seventy-six square miles of ground and took about 40,000 prisoners.

The war on the sea.

The superior strength of the British navy kept the sea lanes open to the Allies, though

many merchant vessels were sunk by German submarines. On February 10, 1916, Germany and Austria declared that after February 29, 1916, they would treat armed merchantmen and liners as ships of war, to be attacked without warning. This decision aroused much indignation in the United States, and when on March 24 the unarmed Channel steamer *Sussex,* carrying Americans as well as Europeans, was torpedoed without warning, the situation between the United States and Germany became very serious. On May 4, however, a German note gave renewed pledges that submarine warfare would be restricted in accordance with international law.

Battle of Jutland bank.

A terrific naval battle between the main fleets of Germany and Great Britain occurred on the afternoon and evening of May 31, 1916, not far from the coast of Jutland. The engagement began at about 3.45 in the afternoon, between the squadrons of Vice Admiral Beatty and the German Vice Admiral von Hipper, and was at first a running fight to the south, in which the British lost the fine battle cruisers *Queen Mary* and *Invincible.* The Germans effected a junction with the squadron under Vice Admiral von Scheer, and the fight turned to the north, which made it possible for the British fleet of dreadnoughts, under Admiral Jellicoe, to reach the battle line at about 6.30, just after it had been turned to the east. The

German fleet, being capped, now headed west, so that the British ships were actually between the Germans and their base. During the night the main fleets were out of touch and the Germans returned to home waters.

The British had lost the battle cruisers *Queen Mary, Indefatigable,* and *Invincible,* three armored cruisers and eight destroyers; the Germans admitted the loss of the battle cruiser *Lutzow* and the battleship *Pommern,* four light cruisers, and five destroyers. Both fleets were badly damaged, and both sides claimed the victory; yet though this was unquestionably the greatest naval engagement ever fought so far as the strength of contending fleets is concerned, no important change in the status of the war resulted. The German fleet reached its home base without capture and the British remained in control of the sea.

Death of Kitchener.

On June 5, 1916, Lord Kitchener, Great Britain's Secretary of State for War, lost his life when the cruiser *Hampshire* went down off the Orkney Islands.

The *Deutschland.*

An event of interest was the arrival of the German *Deutschland,* a submarine merchantman, which reached Baltimore July 9, 1916.

The *U-53* visits America.

Of more sinister omen was the visit paid by the German war submarine *U-53,* which called at Newport, R. I., October 7, 1916, remained for three hours and put to sea again. On October 8 she sank five vessels, three Brit-

ish and two neutral, off the coast near Nantucket, Mass.

Conquest of Rumania.

On August 27, 1916, the Balkan state of Rumania entered the war on the side of the Allies. In addition to her belief that she was joining the winning side, Rumania had the desire to free 3,500,000 people of her own race and language who lived in the Hungarian province of Transylvania. Rumanian armies poured through the passes of the Transylvania Alps and Hungary began to want her soldiers from other fronts. General von Mackensen, most famous of German battle-field leaders, came to the rescue. He took such forces as were available in the Balkans, chiefly Bulgarians or Turks, and invaded the Dobrudja, the part of Rumania that is between the Danube and the Black Sea. On September 7 he captured Turtukan, and on September 10 Silistria.

The Rumanian army in Transylvania captured Hermannstadt and Kronstadt, the people fleeing before them. Troops had to be withdrawn for the Dobrudja. General von Falkenhayn, who had been succeeded by Von Hindenburg on August 29, 1916, as German Chief of Staff, was sent to conquer the Rumanians in Transylvania. With incredible speed he brought his army, probably taken from German and Austrian troops facing Russia. On September 30 he defeated the Rumanians so badly near Hermannstadt that

on October 1 they were beginning a retreat through the Red Tower Pass. By October 13 he held most of Transylvania.

On October 23 Von Mackensen captured the Black Sea port of Constanza, and October 25 the famous bridgehead of Cernavoda—the ten-mile bridge itself across wide swamps and the Danube having been destroyed. He advanced toward Bucharest, and Falkenhayn, who had brought his army through the Vulcan Pass, approached from the north. On December 6, one hundred days after the Rumanians joined the Allies, they were compelled to abandon their capital Bucharest. With Russian reenforcements they made a stand on the Sereth River.

The Serbian city of Monastir was captured by an expedition of the Allies from Salonica, November 19, 1916.

The war in Turkey.

Early in the war British forces from India had landed at the Persian Gulf to protect the pipe lines from British oil wells in Persia. A part of these troops advanced up the Shat-el-Arab and the Tigris, captured Kut-el-Amara September 21, 1915, and pushed on, under General Townshend, toward Bagdad. They were defeated at Ctesiphon, November 22-25, 1915, retreated to Kut-el-Amara and waited for assistance. A British relief expedition was unable to reach them, and on April 29, 1916, General Townshend was forced to surrender

to the Turks. The following year, British troops captured Kut-el-Amara, and on March 11, 1917, entered the city of Bagdad itself.

On February 16, 1916, a Russian army under the Grand Duke Nicholas captured Erzerum, capital of Turkish Armenia. On April 18 they took the Black Sea port of Trebizond. Another army operated in Persia.

Kingdom of Arabia.

An interesting development in the Near East was the revolt of Arabia from Turkish rule, with the Grand Sherif of Mecca as leader. Great Britain, France, and Italy recognized the new kingdom January 2, 1917.

Mexico.

The situation between the United States and Mexico remained serious and was complicated by a raid of the bandit Villa with 1,500 men on the border town of Columbus, New Mexico, March 9, 1916. The Thirteenth United States Cavalry encamped there were taken by surprise, but pursued the raiders fifteen miles into Mexico. In the attack and the pursuit nine civilians and eight American troopers were killed, and about one hundred Mexican raiders. This outrage led to a punitive expedition into Mexico under Brigadier General Pershing and Colonel Dodd, while National Guard forces were sent to protect the border. As the American forces were not permitted to use the railroads and were otherwise hampered by regulations, Villa remained at large, while Carranza was insistent that the American sol-

diers should be withdrawn. A joint conference of American and Mexican commissioners met at New London, Conn., on September 6, 1916, removing later to Atlantic City. No definite agreement was reached, but on February 15, 1917, General Pershing's expedition recrossed the border.

Mexican elections.

In October, 1916, elections were held and delegates chosen by direct vote of the people for a Congress to revise the Constitution of 1857 and arrange for the election of government officials. The Congress met at Queretaro on December 2. Radical changes were made in the constitution, among them being the granting of home rule to large cities, divorce laws, extension of suffrage to self-supporting, unmarried women; the establishment of a minimum wage and of maximum hours of labor and means of adjusting labor disputes.

At the election of March 11, 1917, Venustiano Carranza was chosen President of Mexico, and on May 1, 1917, he was inaugurated.

The Irish rebellion.

In the closing days of April there was a futile and pathetic attempt on the part of certain Irish idealists to obtain the independence of Ireland. The movement seems to have been an outgrowth of the Sinn Féin society. Sir Roger Casement had gone to Germany for aid. On April 22, 1916, British patrols prevented the landing of arms and ammunition on the

coast of Ireland, and made Sir Roger Casement a prisoner. On the 24th of April rebellion broke out in Dublin, its leaders numbering poets and idealists. The rebels captured public places, including Stephen's Green and the post office, and disaffection spread west and south. But General Maxwell was sent to take control and a gunboat showed the rebels in Dublin the impossibility of success. By April 29 the rebellion was falling to pieces and its leaders surrendering. Among those executed were Patrick H. Pearse, provisional president, James Connolly, commander in chief, and Sir Roger Casement.

China.

China, which became a republic on February 12, 1912, after the Manchu dynasty had reigned 267 years, had Yuan Shi-kai, former prime minister, for President. The President is assisted by a cabinet, who are appointed with the approval of an advisory council, an elective body. On December 11, 1915, the Council of State urged President Yuan Shi-kai to assume the throne of China and declare himself emperor. He did this apparently with reluctance. Revolt broke out in several different provinces, and in April, 1916, it was announced that the republic would be continued. Yuan Shi-kai died on June 6, 1916, and on June 7 the former vice president, Li Yuan Hung, assumed the office, being finally elected to the presidency on October 7, 1916.

After the United States had broken with Germany the Chinese cabinet expressed their approval. On March 14, 1917, China also severed diplomatic relations with Germany.

The cabinet agreed with the premier, General Tuan Chi-jui, that China ought to enter the war on the side of the Allies. Parliament and the President hesitated, and the premier was finally dismissed. A revolt ensued with a demand for his reinstatement. Appointed to put down the revolt, General Chang Hsun attempted instead to restore the empire and to place the former boy emperor again on the throne, July 2, 1917. President Li Yuan Hung fled to the Japanese Legation; but the vice president, Feng Kwo-Chang, assumed authority and reinstated Tuan Chi-jui as premier, who speedily defeated the imperialists, June 12, 1917. The emperor abdicated, and Feng Kwo-Chang continued to act as provisional president. Under his leadership and that of Tuan Chi-jui, China formally declared war on Germany, August 14, 1917.

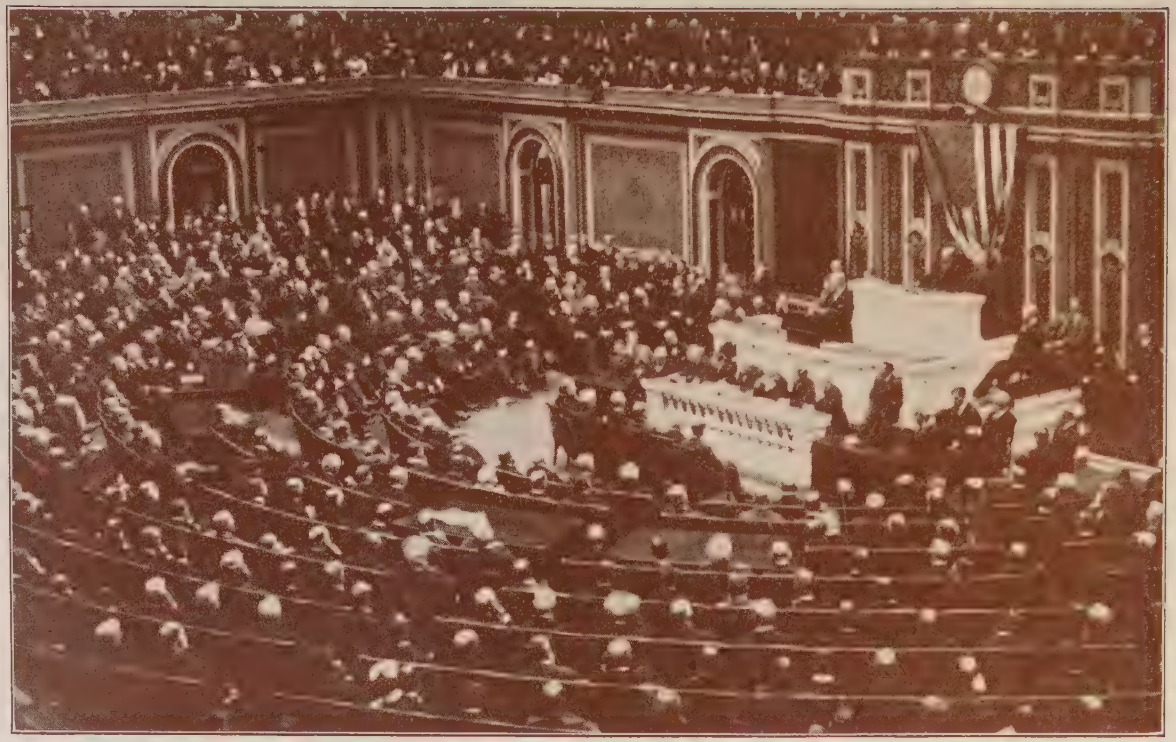
Overthrow of Russian despotism.

It had been often reported that Russia was saved from revolution by the outbreak of war. The Union of Zemstvos, or district and province councils, of which Prince Lvoff was leader, had been working steadily for liberal government. With the country at war they aided in the distribution of supplies and munitions. Something, however, served to prevent

the campaigns of Russia's great armies from reaching full effectiveness. It is said that official mismanagement was due to German influence and that the Czar and Czarina were affected by such intrigue. In the early days of March, 1917, there were reports of food riots in Petrograd. On March 9 these assumed a revolutionary aspect. On March 12, the Duma, meeting in defiance of an edict of the Czar, took the lead of the revolutionary forces, Michael Rodzianko, president of the Duma, being also president of the Committee of Safety. A few days later the world was amazed to learn that an almost bloodless revolution had taken place. On March 15, 1917, the Czar abdicated for himself and his son. The Duma and the new cabinet, with Prince Lvoff as premier, took control of the government, and announced a liberal policy, the people themselves to decide the form of government.

Difficulties in establishing a Free Russia.

Although there was a strong movement in favor of peace, accompanied by a weakening of army discipline, the various elements represented by the cabinet, the Duma, the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates and the Council of Peasants, expressed their firm determination to remain loyal to the Allies and to continue the war. They renounced for Russia, however, any annexation of territory as a result of victory. On May 19, 1917, the



PRESIDENT WILSON URGING CONGRESS TO DECLARE WAR ON AUSTRIA, DECEMBER 4, 1917.

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Provisional Government definitely rejected Germany's offer of a separate peace. With the beginning of July, 1917, the world was thrilled by the opening of a Russian offensive in Galicia, under the command of General Korniloff. The young minister of war, A. F. Kerensky, led the soldiers in person on the first day of the battle. Haliscz and Kalusz were taken, and for a time it appeared that the Russian armies might press on again to Lemberg. Then a period of serious reverses followed, caused by rebellious soldiers who laid down their arms and abandoned the trenches.

Meantime Kerensky, the brilliant minister of war, had replaced Prince Lvoff as premier, and was drawing patriotic Russians of all opinions to his support. On August 2, 1917, General Korniloff was made commander in chief of the armies, succeeding General Brussilov, who had replaced General Alexiev on June 4, 1917. The Russian cabinet was also reorganized early in August, with Kerensky still premier and minister of war.

Early in June, 1917, an American mission led by Elihu Root as special ambassador from the United States, arrived in Petrograd. Returning, they reached Washington on August 8, with the report that the difficulties of the vast country they had visited might be considered temporary; that the Russian people had displayed great self-restraint and ability for

self-government in spite of chaotic conditions, and that it is certain that Russia will emerge a great and free republic.

Death of Francis Joseph.

On November 21, 1916, Francis Joseph, Emperor of Austria for sixty-eight years, died. His nephew succeeded as Karl I. On December 6, 1916, David Lloyd-George became prime minister of England.

Greece.

Another country to suffer great changes through the war was Greece. King Constantine professed to be neutral, but favored the Central Powers. Venizelos, the most able Greek statesman, believed that the future of Greece depended on her joining the Allies. At the invitation of Venizelos, then premier, the French and British established themselves at Salonica. The King, however, insisted on Greek neutrality, and refused to keep the treaty whereby Greece was bound to come to the aid of Serbia against Bulgaria. This hindered Allied operations in the Balkans. It is said that France and Great Britain would have removed Constantine from the throne early in the war, but they were opposed by Russia. With the downfall of the Czar, Constantine was forced to abdicate, and his second son, Alexander, pro-Ally, was made King, June 12, 1917. Greece severed relations with the Central Powers, and was now presumed to be actively in the war on the side of the Allies, June 29, 1917.

Battle of the Ancre.

On February 17, 1917, the British began an attack, striking at the Germans on both sides of the Ancre Brook, and were successful in advancing about half a mile on a two-mile front. On March 10 the British again advanced on the Ancre line, capturing Irles. Von Hindenburg, the German Chief of Staff, was now reported to be in personal command on this front. On March 17, 1917, the Germans began a systematic retreat on a hundred-mile front, so that Péronne, one of the two main objectives in the Somme battle, was easily occupied on the 18th, Roye on the 17th, and Noyon and Nesle on the 18th. It was soon evident that the Germans were falling back to a position known as the Hindenburg line, believed to include Arras, Douai, Cambrai, St. Quentin, La Fère, and Laon.

Battle of Arras.

General Haig's troops attacked the Germans at the northern end of the new part of their line, with the purpose of preventing them from consolidating it here. It was in the beginning of this engagement, known as the Battle of Arras, that Canadian troops stormed and took the famous Vimy Ridge, April 9, 1917.

On March 28, 1917, General Nivelle had begun an offensive south of Laon, the southern end of the new Hindenburg line.

The Vimy Ridge, captured on April 9, was a position of great value, for it overlooks Lens,

the most important coal city in France, a prize the Germans would make great sacrifices to hold. The Canadians, however, were able to hold the ridge against German counterattacks. During April and May, the valley of the Scarpe, a river flowing past Arras and Douai into the Scheldt, was the scene of bitterly fought battles, with some gain of ground for the British.

Third Ypres.

On June 7, 1917, the British began another battle on the Ypres salient, in Belgium, with the most terrific mine explosions yet used in the war. In the infantry attacks that followed, they succeeded in eliminating the German salient at this point and occupying the Wytschaete-Messines ridge, overlooking the trenches and the roads to Ypres.

The Craonne Plateau.

It was on April 9 that the British made their first great advance in the Arras sector. Just one week later, April 16, the French began a great offensive between Soissons and Rheims. They were met by counterattacks, but by May 7, General Nivelle's held the ridge of the Craonne. Although the French offensive had been on the whole successful, gains had been made at such tremendous loss of life that soon afterward General Nivelle was replaced by General Pétain, and General Foch, famous for his brilliant leadership in the Battle of the Marne, became chief of staff.

Along the summit of the Craonne Plateau

ran the road called the Chemin des Dames, a name now familiar in war history, for the forces of the German Crown Prince attacked here repeatedly, endeavoring to win back the plateau.

August offensives.

August, 1917, saw fierce battles on the western front and on the Carso Plateau. French and British troops renewed the offensive near Ypres, Belgium. The Canadians pressed closer to Lens in the Arras sector; fighting continued on the Craonne Plateau. Italy gained ground on the Isonzo front. In a brilliant attack, the French occupied the last important positions on the Verdun front.

Fall of Riga.

On September 4, 1917, the Russian port of Riga, on the Baltic, fell to the Germans.

Ruthless submarine warfare.

On January 31, 1917, the German Government abruptly withdrew its pledges to the United States and announced that after February 1 Germany would carry on a campaign of ruthless submarine warfare in zones around the British Isles, bordering the west coast of France and in a part of the Mediterranean. Vessels would be sunk unwarned, whatever their character or nationality.

The United States prepares for war.

On February 3 President Wilson announced to Congress that diplomatic relations with Germany had been severed. On March 4, 1917, Woodrow Wilson was inaugurated for the second time President of the United States. A special session of the Congress of

the United States was convened on April 2, 1917. On the evening of the same day President Wilson delivered his war message, and on April 6 Congress declared a state of war existing between the United States and Germany. Immediately an order was given that the navy be mobilized and placed on a war footing.

Support of Latin America.

On April 7, 1917, Cuba and Panama declared war against Germany. Brazil not only severed diplomatic relations, but revoked her decree of neutrality.

Selective Draft Law.

Both army and navy of the United States were immediately authorized to recruit to full war strength, and the General Staff's army bill, for raising 1,000,000 men by selective draft, became law, May 18, 1917. On June 5, Registration Day, nearly 10,000,000 young men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty-one registered, and the work of selecting an army began. There were 4,557 districts, and each man registered was assigned a number. On July 20 the numbers were drawn and the order in which the men should be called thus determined by lottery. No one could send a substitute. If exempt for any reason, the next in order was called. Work was hastened on sixteen great cantonments in preparation for the training of the new army.

Financing the war.

Without a single dissenting vote both House and Senate passed a measure authorizing a

bond issue of $7,000,000,000, of which $3,000,000,000 was to be lent to the Allies of America. The measure was signed by the President on April 24. The first bond issue, for $2,000,000,000, was offered to public subscription on May 2, 1917, under the name of the "Liberty Loan." The books were closed on June 15, with the loan greatly oversubscribed.

Liberty Loans.

A second Liberty Loan, offered in the fall of 1917, was eagerly subscribed to the extent of nearly $5,000,000,000. A third is scheduled for February, 1918.

War Revenue Bill.

The War Revenue Bill was presented to Congress in April, by Mr. Kitchin, democratic leader in the House. There was much re-drafting in both House and Senate before the bill was finally signed by the President on October 3, 1917. It is estimated that this measure will yield annually about $2,535,000,000. Among the largest sources of revenue are the "excess profits" tax on large business houses, new income tax schedules, and heavy imposts on intoxicating liquors. The law provides for a reorganization of postal rates. A measure so far-reaching naturally excites much criticism, but the purpose of Congress to support a vigorous prosecution of the war is evident.

On April 21 a British commission, headed by Arthur James Balfour, and on April 24 a French commission, headed by Marshal Jof-

fré and ex-Premier Viviani, reached the United States. Important commissions from other allies—Italy, Belgium, Russia, and, in August, Japan—followed.

The problem of food supply.

It was evident that the question of furnishing food for the United States and her allies was the most pressing of the war. Although Germany's submarine campaign did not yield the results she had predicted, ships and cargoes were destroyed at an unprecedented rate. The world's supply of meat was greatly diminished. The shortage of wheat, most essential of all foods in European and American countries, was world-wide. In Europe cultivation had been curtailed by the war. Failure of the crop in the Argentine led that country to attempt an embargo on its export. The yield of winter wheat in the southern part of the United States had been small, and spring conditions were also unpromising. But patriotic agitation throughout the country led to a considerable increase in acreage of other food staples. Congress passed, on August 8, a Food Control Bill, authorizing the President to appoint a food administrator, and giving power to prevent speculation and waste, and to regulate manufacture and transportation of important food and fuel staples. This was accompanied by a Food Survey Act. Herbert C. Hoover, who had administered Belgian relief with distinguished success, was appointed

food administrator. It is the purpose to stimulate production, conserve supplies and regulate transportation, so that there may be a steady flow between producer and consumer.

Aircraft.

It was in the United States that the aeroplane was first perfected, but the country had lagged behind others in applying the new weapon to the uses of army and navy. Now, it seemed evident that America could aid the Allies more effectively in this field than in any other, and the enormous sum of $640,000,000 was appropriated for aircraft July 24, 1917.

Inventors and manufacturers all over the country cheerfully placed their trade secrets and patents at the service of the Government, and by their means a new and effective motor for aircraft, adapted for rapid construction in factories all over the United States was devised, and given the name of the Liberty Motor. New aviation schools were established. In November, 1917, it was reported that American airmen were already making themselves felt on the western battle front.

The American navy in the war.

The first assistance, other than financial and moral, that the United States could lend was at sea. American destroyers were cooperating with the British in the war zone as early as May 4, 1917, Vice Admiral Sims in command. Work on the construction of submarine chasers and destroyers was hastened. Experience convinced the Americans that the de-

stroyer was the most dreaded enemy of the submarine, and $225,000,000 for building vessels of this type was included in the War Deficiency Bill, which became law September 18, 1917.

Merchant marine.

The ninety-one German vessels that had taken refuge in American harbors were seized by the Government. To bridge the ocean with food for the Allies the President authorized on April 9 the construction of 3,000,000 tons of shipping, appointing Major General Goethals for the task. Continued disagreement between General Goethals and Mr. Denman, the chairman of the Shipping Board, led to the resignation of both, and on July 27, the Shipping Board reorganized with E. N. Hurley as chairman and Rear Admiral Capps was assigned the task of building the ships. Capps was succeeded by Rear Admiral Harris late in November.

The American army overseas.

It had been the purpose of the General Staff to send no troops abroad until a great army had been trained in the United States. General Joffre convinced the President that troops could be better trained behind the battle front and that the moral effect of an ever-increasing American army in France would be powerful. Accordingly, Major General Pershing was sent to organize the American army in France, and a division of regular troops under the direct command of Major General Sibert fol-

lowed. General Pershing reached a French port on June 13, 1917, and the first contingent of regulars on June 26, 1917. They were received with unbounded enthusiasm. From that time on troops are continually crossing.

Rainbow Division abroad.

Troops embarked with great secrecy, and it was not until November 30, 1917, that the public were permitted to know that the Rainbow Division, made up of troops selected from the National Guards from all sections of the United States, had been for some time in Europe.

Fall of the Kerensky Government in Russia.

On the eighth of November, 1917, a second revolution was announced from Petrograd, leaving the Bolsheviki, the most radical of the socialists, in control. Their program called for a constitutional convention, for turning over the land to the people who tilled it, and for peace. Nikolai Lenine was announced as Premier and Leon Trotsky as Minister of Foreign Affairs. Kerensky, the former Premier, defeated, was obliged to flee. There were many rumors that this new government was not recognized in the interior of Russia and would soon be overthrown; but it seemed to hold Petrograd, and by December 1, 1917, had arranged for a conference with Germany regarding a separate peace.

The invasion of Italy.

The collapse of Russia's military power made it possible for Germany and Austria to withdraw men and guns from the Russian

fronts. On October 24, they began a remarkable drive against the Italian positions south of Tolmino, and by October 6 had broken the Italian lines and forced a retreat. Gorizia, captured by Italy in 1916, was occupied by the Austro-Germans again on October 28, 1917. It was hoped that the retiring army could make a stand behind the Tagliamento River, but this proved impossible and the armies of the Central Powers crossed the Tagliamento on November 8. A German estimate of captures made in this offensive was 230,000 men and 2,300 guns, a serious loss to Italy. The Allied Powers immediately held a conference at Rome to consider means of saving Italy. They formed a permanent War Council, of which the military members were General Foch, General Cadorna and Major General Wilson. General Diaz now succeeded Cadorna as commander in chief of the Italian armies. Venice was considered in danger; but the Italians made a successful stand behind the Piave River. By December 1, 1917, troops and supplies from Britain and France had been landed for Italy's support, and it was believed the invasion would be checked at the Piave.

Battle of Cambrai.

In the closing weeks of November, 1917, British troops under General Sir Julian Byng made a brilliant drive in the direction of Cambrai, breaking the Hindenburg line and

capturing important positions, together with prisoners and guns. The victory was the more remarkable for being a surprise attack —supposed to be impossible on a large scale under modern conditions. All preparations for the offensive had been made at night. No artillery bombardment heralded the opening of the battle, but infantry and a great number of "tanks" charged across No Man's Land and were close to the German lines before the attack was discovered. Another feature of this battle was the use of cavalry for pursuit of the retreating foe. By November 23, the British had taken positions within three miles of Cambrai. The Germans rallied, and ground was taken and retaken in the week that followed. On December 1 the battle was still in progress.

Modern weapons.

The campaigns of 1917 showed increased dependence on new methods of warfare. The Allies began to proclaim that victory might come from control of the air. The Germans declared that their submarine warfare would bring Great Britain to her knees. Gas attacks were made on an immense scale. Perhaps two hundred tanks were used in the charge at Cambrai. Artillery barrage was made more and more effective.

Aid from the United States.

By November, 1917, American soldiers were already in the trenches on the western front; American airmen were taking part in

bombing expeditions; American engineers aided in constructing the railways that brought up munitions for the British at Cambrai. Their presence and the continual increase of America's forces in France encouraged the war-weary among the Allies, especially in view of the promise that a million fighting men from the United States would be ready for the drive of 1918.

The United States in the war.

On December 4, 1917, President Wilson urged the Congress of the United States to declare a state of war existing between this country and Austria-Hungary. This action was taken at once, and the Declaration of War against Austria-Hungary was signed by the President on December 7, 1917. As formerly, when the United States declared war on Germany, Cuba and Panama took the same step a little later.

WORLD CONDITIONS ON JANUARY 1, 1918

(A. D. 1917-1918)

C. W. TAYLOR

IF the World War had been declared at an end on the first of January, 1918, Germany would still have been considered the victor, for her control extended through that Middle Europe she had endeavored to establish. The vast country of Russia, now almost helpless from a military point of view, lay at her doors ready for reorganization and commercial control. Italy had lost all the gains of two years. On the other hand, France and Britain had more than held their own in the west; the submarine campaign had not brought Great Britain to her knees, but had, on the contrary, forced America into the war, and not one of Germany's colonial possessions was left to her. She had then conquered Middle Europe. It remained to be seen if she could force a decision in France before the power of the United States became a factor of importance in the war—and if successful there, it would still be necessary to complete what the submarine campaign had begun and win her way to power on the seas against the United States

and Great Britain. The German Government, in spite of nearly three years and a half of military success, spoke much of peace.

In Russia, it seemed as if the Bolsheviki acted to further German aims, for on December 1 Foreign Minister Trotsky published the secret agreements of Russia, France, Great Britain, and Italy, and on December 5 began arrangements for an armistice.

The conference at Brest-Litovsk.

On December 15 an armistice was signed to be effective between December 16 and January 14, 1918. A peace conference opened at Brest-Litovsk on December 17.

The Central Powers, which had refused to state their peace terms at President Wilson's request a year before, now conceded, through Count Czernin of Austria, that they would agree to conclude immediately a general peace without forcible annexations and indemnities. But as they declined to withdraw troops from Poland, Courland, and other Russian provinces adjacent to Germany, the real value of their offer was discounted. On January 3, 1918, the peace parleys were interrupted. Should the break prove permanent, the Allies would give Russia every assistance in their power to enable her to face Germany again on the eastern battle front.

Italy's stand.

When the Italians were forced to retreat behind the Piave River, it was predicted that one of the great battles of the war would be

fought along the lower Piave, in defense of Venice. Accordingly, Italian engineers opened the dikes of the canals and flooded the plains of the lower Piave, British monitors approached the coast and were able to shell the Teuton lines where they were near Venice. The Italian lines on the north extended from Lake Garda to the Adriatic, and a road of approach to the Venetian Plains for the invaders was made by breaking through on the Asiago Plateau. The Germans crossed the upper Brenta and engagements were fought west of that river.

On December 31, 1917, the Italians were much heartened by a victory won by the French troops in the region of Monte Tomba, west of the Piave; and on January 1, the Italians themselves began a new offensive simultaneously in the mountain regions of the upper Piave and Brenta and in the plains of the lower Piave. The invasion was checked.

Capture of Jerusalem.

A most dramatic event of the war was the capture of Jerusalem by British troops under General Allenby on December 10, 1917 Throughout the rest of December British soldiers pressed on toward the north. This occupation of Palestine ended the Turkish hopes of capturing the Suez Canal. General Allenby's men, at a considerable sacrifice of life, made the conquest without shelling Jerusalem or Bethlehem.

Inter-Allied conference.

No Russian delegates came to the Inter-Allied conference, which was opened in Paris on December 1, 1917, the new French Premier, Clémenceau, presiding. Colonel E. M. House represented President Wilson in the Conference of Premiers. In addition to the American mission which went abroad with Colonel House were General Pershing, Ambassador Sharpe, and Vice Admiral Sims. The conference planned unity of action. Execution of decisions was intrusted to the Supreme War Council. The establishment of an Inter-Allied Naval Board may result in an aggressive campaign in 1918.

The Halifax disaster.

On the morning of Thursday, December 6, the *Imo,* a Belgian relief ship, and the *Mont Blanc,* a French munitions ship, collided in the Narrows connecting Halifax Harbor with Bedford Basin. The explosion of 580 tons of trinitrotoluol on the *Mont Blanc* left half of Halifax a ruin. The new docks at the other end of the city remained, but the estimated property loss was $50,000,000. The loss of life was 1,300.

Revolution in Portugal.

An unheralded revolution occurred in Portugal in the early days of December, 1917. News reached the world on December 8 of revolutionary activities on the 7th. On December 9 the reports were verified. Dr. Sidonio Paez was made President of the Provisional Government.

On December 26 and 27 a terrible earthquake destroyed Guatemala City. Guatemala earthquake.

In every country that could be reached by German agents, attempts were made to disrupt the government. In France, the Ribot cabinet fell through failure to deal effectively with German intrigue. The Painlevé cabinet, which succeeded the Ribot, lasted only two months and fell for the same reason. The President then turned to Clémenceau, known as the strong man of France, and on November 16 a new cabinet was announced. Clémenceau was Premier; Stephen Pichon became Minister of Foreign Affairs. Cabinet changes in France.

Brazil, already in the war, was compelled to put down German uprisings in her southern provinces. The Argentine Congress showed a willingness to sever relations with Germany, but was prevented by the attitude of President Irigoyen. Documents made public by Mr. Lansing, the Secretary of State of the United States, in December, 1917, were proofs of long-continued German plots to arouse hostility toward the United States in Latin American countries. Latin America.

On December 11, 1917, the United States Senate ordered an inquiry into the military preparations. The testimony of General Crozier, head of the Bureau of Ordnance, and of other officials summoned, showed a mortifying delay in providing machine guns and Military inquiry.

heavy artillery for the soldiers, as well as the shortage of clothing and blankets at some cantonments. Delays in shipbuilding were attributed to labor and housing difficulties at the shipyards and to failure of lumber companies to fulfill contracts.

Control of railroads.

Difficulties in transportation rather than an actual shortage in food and fuel supplies caused hardship in many parts of the country, particularly in the big cities. To make the railroads a more effective part of the military strength of the country, President Wilson appointed William G. McAdoo Director General of Railroads to operate all the railroads of the country as one system. The far-reaching effect of this order and the tremendous problems involved are evident when it is remembered that the United States has more than 250,000 miles of railroads—more than all the countries of Europe together. The Director General took control on December 28, 1917.

The western battle front.

In December the British lost a part of their gains near Cambrai, but the battle remained a victory for them. The French held their own at Verdun and the Chemin des Dames.

The war of 1918.

Thus the Allies awaited on January 1, 1918, the great drive they believed the Germans were about to make on the western front. With American forces as a "reserve of victory," a just peace eventually was assured.

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